

Childhood Education

The Magazine
for Teachers
of Children

To Stimulate Thinking
Rather Than
Advocate Fixed Practice

Next Month—

"Ways of Working for Children"—the theme for next month's issue—is considered from several aspects. There is the point of view of a school superintendent who sees the opportunities in public school education. Two contributors present the case for health education. One author gives his opinion of the opportunities on the international front and another shows how self-appraisal activities can improve relationships with children and contribute to their better development. What the development of a play school program can do to improve home and school relationships as well as to be an effective way of working for children concludes the emphasis on the theme of the issue.

Among contributors are Harold Shane, Maurice E. Troyer, John L. Bracken, C. Morley Sellery, Clara Lambert and Harold Snyder.

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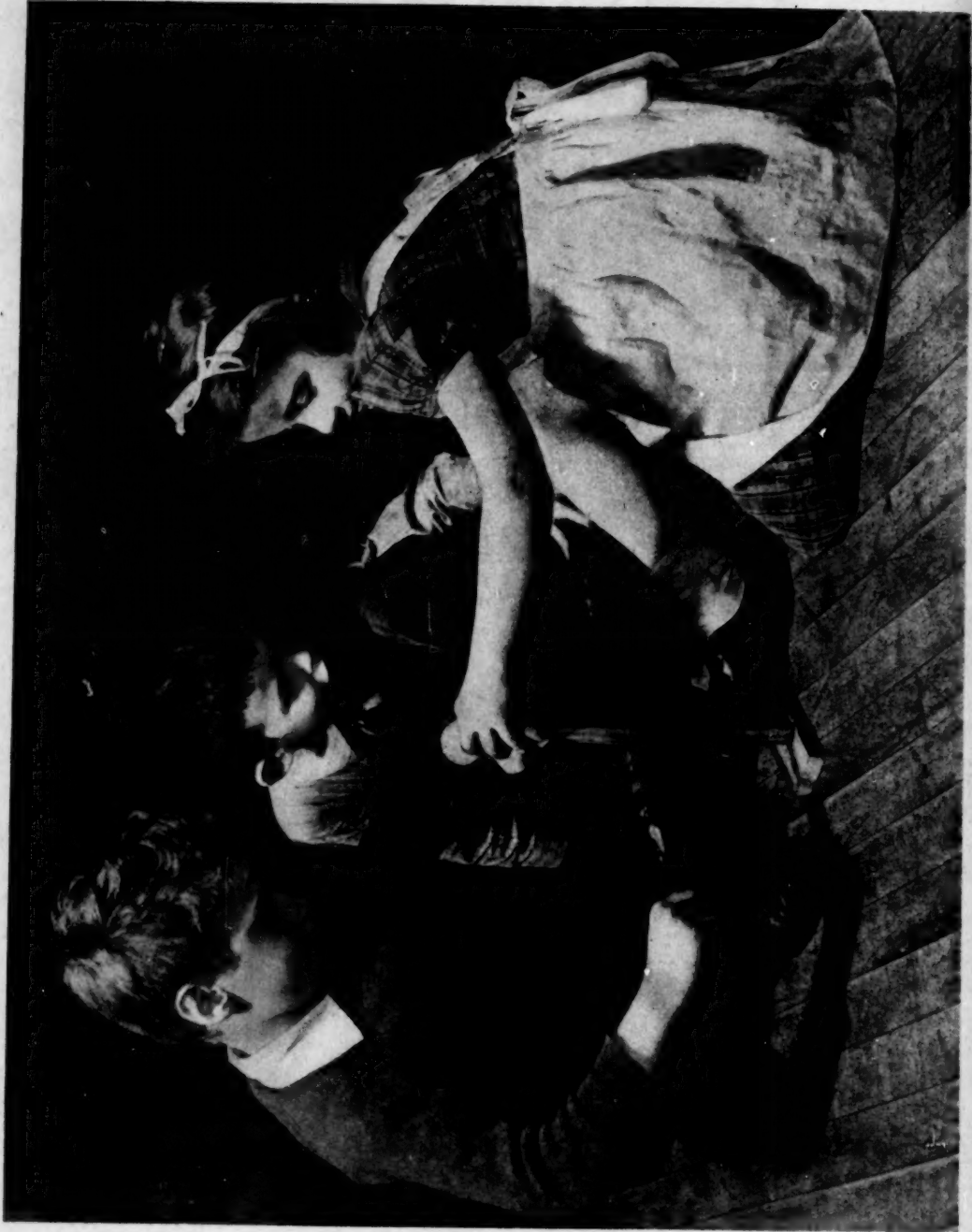
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Courtesy Horace Mann-Litch, School
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Find the motivation

On The Strength Of One's Convictions

WE KNOW THERE IS NOTHING MORE IMPORTANT THAN WORKING for the children of this country and of the world. An adequately reared generation strong in body, clear in vision and understanding, honest in judgment, warm in human relationships, and vigorous in pursuit of the good life—just one generation so reared could change the whole miserable trend of war and depression which has shaped the successive social scenes in which their fathers and grandfathers lived.

We are convinced that children stand in great need the world over. In our United States of America, more favored than other countries, they face hunger and want in body, mind and spirit. Two lines of endeavor are urgent and should complement each other. We should provide for children secure and affectionate homes; safe, clean, cultural communities, and enlightened democratic schools. These constitute sociological provisions for children.

The second line of endeavor is educational. We should help children to understand and deal with the problems of living at their own levels and in their own locale—problems of health, of social progress, of creative art, of religious values, of natural phenomena and scientific method. On the strength of our conviction about the importance of child welfare and education, the crying needs of children, and the sociological and educational provisions which should be supplied, we forge ahead.

BUT CERTAIN OBSTACLES IMPEDE OUR progress. There is the obstacle of such economic and social problems as national boundaries, world trade, balance of power, national sovereignty, atomic bombs, and military strength. Proper solution of such problems is basic. But fundamental, too, are the underlying concerns for families, communities, and schools. And in the tumult they are slighted. Enactment of law providing federal aid to education is stymied; schools are crowded; teachers are in short supply; large numbers of centers for the care of children are closed. These are a few evidences of the instability which hampers progress.

Then there are the obstacles presented by certain traditions in the schools requiring routines of behavior, mastery of facts, and practice of skills without reference to their meaning in solving one's problems. Often the real problems of children's lives and the great world forces that affect the youngsters and their parents are entirely eliminated from the program in favor of the traditional pattern of school work.

The third obstacle lies in our own human limitations. There are those of us who become discouraged; times are hard; conditions are bad; problems are so big and difficult. Some of us are resentful; political factions operate against us; working hours are too long; pay is too little.

BUT DELIVER US FROM THE SLOTH WHICH comes from lack of a motivating force, lack of conviction, that working for the best interests of children is worth all the effort it takes. Our course should be directed by intelligent insight and sound judgment, and pursued with emotional urgency. On the strength of sound convictions the teaching profession can achieve great things.

—WINIFRED E. BAIN

No Monument of Stone

OUR SON IS DEAD, YOUR SON AND MINE. WHETHER HE WAS actually born to us or not, whether he wore an American, German, Russian or British uniform, he is still our son and he is dead—dead in a war that was not of his making. How shall we remember him? What fitting memorial shall we raise?

Let us build in the hearts of children the life he loved. Let us prepare them adequately for the future that was not for him. Let us make sure that no son of his—or son he might have had—need ever go forth to battle again.

Knowing that we do it in memory of him, let us give our children all the peace, security and fun we can. If this includes the habit of sharing and of making others happy, the foundation of our memorial will be sound. Warped souls do not develop in a contented environment and generosity of spirit is a necessary prerequisite to all progressive thinking.

Let us build on this base a gleaming obelisk of fearlessness and faith. A thunderstorm may be a frightening experience or the opening of a door to a new world, depending on the attitude of the leader. Children of other creeds, other races, other lands may be looked at askance or welcomed as brothers, depending again on us and how we are overcoming our prejudices. There need never be another war once we have conquered fear and learned a belief in our fellow man.

AND AT THE APEX OF THIS LIVING MEMORIAL let us light a perpetual torch of compassion. Let us give our children opportunities to share of their abundance with those who have less and to do it with vision and understanding. This is a fitting memorial to our son. This might even become worthy of the price he paid.—From *St. Louis Girl Scout Bulletin* (September, 1946). Contributed by JENNIE WAHLERT.

DOMINANCE *versus* AUTOCRACY

and the Democratic Character

What pattern of stimulation do you as teacher present to the pupils you teach? Is it democratic or authoritarian? Do you consider the developmental status of the child in your efforts to motivate his learning and guide his behavior? What kind of matured personalities do you wish your pupils to develop? Mr. Sanford, associate professor of psychology, University of California at Berkeley, considers these questions in his discussion of authority and makes his interpretations in terms of the changing needs of both children and society.

IT SEEMS WELL RECOGNIZED TODAY that the teacher is not just an instrument for instruction in intellectual matters but an important figure in the child's social environment. The task of defining and describing the patterns of stimulation that the teacher presents—affection, rejection, domination and the like—and the patterns of response that these stimuli commonly evoke in the child is one to which psychologists have earnestly addressed themselves.

In recent years, as a sign of the times, particular interest has centered upon those teacher-initiated forces which lie on the dimension between autocratic domination and democratic respect for individuality. Thus, Harold Anderson of the University of Illinois has shown that it is possible to measure with considerable accuracy the amount of "dominative" behavior — imposing goals, giving orders without reasons, refusing, threatening, blaming—and the amount of "socially integrative" behavior—getting the child's acceptance of the goal, giving approval, admitting own error—which the teacher shows in her relations with those she teaches.

He has brought forth evidence to show that whereas the former leads, in general, to such behavior as resistance and overconformity on the part of the child, the latter tends strongly to promote spontaneity and initiative.¹

Again, Ronald Lippitt and Ralph White, experimenting with eleven-year-old boys at the University of Iowa, have shown the varying effects of "authoritarian," "democratic" and "*laissez-faire*" atmospheres upon the behavior of children in groups.² An authoritarian atmosphere in which orders, disrupting demands, nonconstructive criticism as well as expressions of praise and approval by the leader are most pronounced leads to group reactions that are either "aggressive, irritable, self-centered" or "submissive, highly dependent, socially apathetic." When there is a submissive reaction to authority there is more intensive work than in the democratic or *laissez-faire*

¹ "Domination and Social Integration in the Behavior of Kindergarten Children and Teachers." By Harold H. Anderson. *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 1939, 21: 287-385.

² By Ronald Lippitt and Ralph K. White, "The 'Social Climate' of Children's Groups." In *Child Behavior and Development*. Edited by Roger G. Barker, Jacob S. Kounin, and Herbert F. Wright. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1943. Pp. 652 + viii.

atmospheres, but work falls off drastically when the leader leaves the room. The *laissez-faire* situation, where activity by the leader is at a minimum, is marked primarily by loafing and disorganized play and the children clearly show that they need and want some kind of direction. The democratic atmosphere, in which the leader avoids authoritarian techniques and while offering guiding suggestions tries to stimulate self-guidance, is clearly superior to the others in promoting "group morale"—a state of affairs in which there is a spontaneous "hanging together" of the group and a working together for common goals, something that is not diminished when the leader is temporarily absent.

In both of these studies the emphasis is upon *taking into account the child's own needs* and trying to find goals which will serve these needs as well as those of the teacher or leader. The studies go a long way in showing precisely by what techniques this is accomplished and the numerous socially desirable effects that can thus be attained. Similarly, they show us something of the enormous variety of practices which ignore this principle and thus work against group harmony and individual well-being.

One reason why we are struck so immediately by the significance of these studies—and others like them—is that we can so readily apply them to other situations and problems. Did not the major complaints of workers in war industries boil down to "too little consideration for the needs of the worker"? Does anyone know a veteran who is not bitterly critical of the autocratic system under which he has recently been living? Was not the rioting of young sailors in San Francisco

following V-J Day similar to the behavior of young people anywhere when they are suddenly released from an authoritarian atmosphere in which they have been submissive?

I should answer "yes" to these questions. More than this, the procedures which, according to Bruno Bettelheim, the Nazis used to reduce the inmates of the concentration camps to slavish imitation of their masters seem to differ only in intensity from those described as autocratic in the studies quoted.³ Completely arbitrary discipline—the piling on of meaningless work, showing the hopelessness of any resistances, preventing anyone from ever acting as an individual—was never the exclusive property of the Nazis.

Although Lippitt and White are cautious or perhaps modest about carrying over the conclusions from their work into the realm of educational and political philosophy, other writers have not hesitated to do so. Thus it has been strongly suggested that the kind of authoritarian child training which has been traditional in Germany made possible the kind of political organization which Germany attained under Hitler.

It is small wonder, then, that a consideration of the Iowa studies has led to the statement that "there is only one way in which democracy is to be saved . . . the adoption of day-by-day methods of democratic work."⁴ While sympathizing with such a statement one may wonder if teachers, particularly teachers of young children, do not find exhortations of this kind

³ By Bruno Bettelheim, "Individual and Mass Behavior in Extreme Situations," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 1943, 38:417-452.

⁴ "What Are the Effects of a Democratic Atmosphere on Children?" By Goodwin Watson, *Progressive Education*, 1940, 17:336-342.

somewhat confusing—if not a little annoying. They could easily get the impression from some of the current discussions that if they just work hard enough to let the child do what he wants, everything will be fine, and that if they try to exercise their proper authority the charge of “dictator” will surely be hurled at them.

At the least, it seems to me, numerous questions would come to their minds. Are there not times when the most vigorous exercise of authority is called for? Do not some children “respond better” to authority? Are there not instances in which the firm, authoritative teacher not only has the smoothest running classroom, even when she is not physically present, but turns out in the end to be the most loved by the children? Are there not occasions when the most conscientious application of democratic techniques fails to produce desirable results? Could it not be that democratic techniques may make the children seem happy and prevent painful teacher-child conflicts and yet fail to produce the “character development” desired?

These are good questions and the studies discussed above do not provide complete answers. More research is needed and the whole problem of authority needs the most searching analysis. It seems to me that thinking in this area should give particular attention to (a) the distinction between *dominance* and *autocracy*, (b) the developmental status of the child and (c) the ultimate aim of the proceeding; that is, the kind of matured personality to be developed.

The Distinction Between the Two

The main distinction between democratic and authoritarian procedures seems clear: in the former one tries to

integrate the child's aims with one's own in a common purpose, while in the latter one determines the child's activity regardless of his wishes. That there are different *degrees* of authority is well recognized; a basic difference in *kinds* of authority is too often neglected. I suggest that the kind which I am here calling mere *dominance* is often necessary, is never harmful to the child, and can very well be carried out in a democratic spirit, while the undesirable effects described above are almost always due to the *autocratic* exercise of authority.

Whenever we make the child do something he does not want to do or prevent him from doing what he wants to, whether we use threats or forceful orders or persuasion or subtle play upon his feelings, we are being dominant. It is doubtful that anyone ever raised a normal child or saw a class through a school year without a great deal of this kind of behavior. But dominance is not absolute, not inflexible; it is suited to the occasion. Though it is usually in the service of cultural aims which the normal child can be expected to attain, it need not be so. It may be in the name of nothing higher than the teacher's or parent's convenience. If the child is to appreciate having his individuality respected, he must learn to respect that of others—even adults.

Autocracy is something else. It is to be detected not so much in the frequency with which the teacher performs specific acts, e.g., gives orders, as in the general quality of all—or most—of her acts. Autocracy tends to be *rigid* and *total*. The teacher or parent sticks to his policy regardless of individual differences among children, of variations in the same child's psychological state, of the requirements of a

particular situation. A minor breach of the rules is treated the same as a major one; discipline must be complete or there is no use having any at all.

While these characteristics of autocracy can be noted from an examination of the teacher's pattern of behavior, what is even more crucial for the definition of autocracy lies deeper still, that is, in what makes the teacher behave as she does. Not only does the child fail to see the purpose behind autocratic commands and prohibitions but, often, so does the teacher, for autocratic behavior springs from psychological needs which are likely to be unrecognized in herself. If the teacher or parent has to pass on to the child a set of standards she has not really accepted herself but against which she is afraid to rebel, if she seriously doubts her ability to cope with children in a group and is plagued by visions of chaos, if she is filled with a vague anxiety because the children display or seem about to display reprehensible tendencies which she still finds it difficult to control in herself, if out of temporary frustration or continuing unhappiness she just wants to punish somebody, then will her behavior take on that compulsive, rigid, totalitarian aspect which is the essence of autocracy. In such circumstances the child is in effect asked not just to do what the teacher wants but to share her anxiety and to be a victim of her maladjustment. If he does not rebel it is only because he is afraid to.

We may say, then, that autocratic authority is never called for, that its effects are undesirable or harmful.

The Developmental Status of the Child

But what about dominance? When and how much? The answer seems to

depend primarily upon the developmental stage of the child. The teacher or school administrator or parent who has accepted with enthusiasm an overall liberal, democratic, progressive philosophy and applies it without any consideration of the age-linked changes in the needs of the child is dangerously close to that kind of rigidity which we have attributed to the autocrat. The child does need external authority, though children are the only people who do—or should. The need is greatest in infancy and it decreases directly with age until psychological maturity is reached.

There is no more reason for believing in the child's natural "goodness" than there is for believing in his natural "badness." So long as we require children to "grow into cultures" authority will be necessary in order to control basic emotional impulses. To the extent that the child is left without adult control, he has to lean upon his own devices.

In the young child these devices are not very adequate. When his untutored impulses threaten to express themselves and there is no adult control, he is left at the mercy of imaginary punishing agencies which grow in frightfulness as the impulses increase in strength. Thus it is that when the young child is allowed to do just as he pleases, to impose beyond reason on the playful or tolerant or inhibited adult, his anxiety of punishment increases until he practically begs—by increasingly naughty behavior—for the adult to step in. The teacher or parent who fears being disliked if he is firm, or who is so full of inhibited aggression that he is afraid one forceful act will give him away completely, or who out of persisting adolescent rebellion is deter-

mined to reverse all the practices employed by his parents, or who with the best intentions is trying to achieve an impossibly high standard of "liberal" behavior will not infrequently find that he has an anxious child on his hands, one who in later years might seek some external authority to supply the stability he never had.

With increasing age the child's capacity for self-control—his Ego—increases. Thus it is that he not only needs less and less external control but becomes increasingly resentful of it. It is to favor this development that democratic practices are so important. We pay attention to the child's wishes not because we think they are more important than our own but because our aim is to strengthen his Ego through exercise of it, that is, through allowing him to participate as fully as possible in the decisions that are made concerning him. The younger the child the more sensitive is the Ego to the forces brought to bear upon it. This is why autocracy and undisciplined liberalism are likely to be particularly harmful to the young child—the former discourages self-control by allowing no place for it, the latter by placing too heavy a burden upon it.

The Kind of Personality To Be Developed

The discussion thus far has been concerned primarily with the immediate effects upon the child of different kinds of teacher attitudes and practices. Presumably the teacher not only wants the children in her care to be happy and spontaneous right now but she wants them eventually to become effective democratic citizens. I am aware that the greatest educational atrocities have been committed in the

name of "character building," but I find it impossible to escape the impression that the kind of characters we develop will have as much to do with the preservation of democracy as will "the adoption of day-by-day methods of democratic work." I assume that it is no more "natural" to be democratic than it is to be submissive to authority, and that to insure the former requires positive effort and not just a policy of hands off.

The most important feature of the "democratic" character is a genuinely internalized conscience. It is only when the individual has an internal authority upon which he can depend that he is able to be free of anti-democratic external authorities—the gang, the narrowly defined social group, individuals who claim to represent the will of the people or the will of God.

It is the parents more than the teacher who are primarily responsible for establishing a conscience in the child. As the Ego develops and the normal process of identification with parents goes on, the child's external authorities become increasingly a part of himself. This development takes place most smoothly when suitable firmness of discipline is accompanied by ample love. The teacher cannot be a crucial influence one way or the other in this matter, but she can do much to reinforce the normal process and she can refrain from undermining or disrupting the internal structures which are as yet only tenuous.

We are fairly safe in assuming that teacher behavior which makes for harmony and cooperation in the classroom also favors the normal process of character development. But it is well to consider in this connection that spontaneity, initiative and ease in social

contacts with peers do not necessarily hold the most promise for future development. Indeed, it may be the other way around. A child in whom the process of internalization is taking place may well be marked for his inhibition, shyness, susceptibility to hurt feelings—even obedience to proper authority. I suspect that many of the present-day fighters for more liberalism in the schools and everywhere were like that as children, before becoming rebellious adolescents and mature men.

When we take this long-term view of the matter and ask what should be the teacher's position with respect to authority, the answer in general terms seems clear. Authority should be of

such a kind and such a degree that the child can accept it and make it his own. This authority is in the service of genuine cultural aims, and it is exercised in a context of love and respect for the child. As the child's authorities become more and more internalized, external pressures are gradually relaxed and one increasingly acts as if the child were his own authority. There should be as much democracy as the growing Ego can stand, as much dominance as is necessary to insure acculturation (the transfer of cultural elements from one group to another) and relief from the anxiety of punishment, and no autocracy at all.

“And the Democratic Character”

ALASTAIR, SON OF KENNETH GRAHAME, AUTHOR OF *The Wind in the Willows*, bore himself with the sweetest of courtesies.

These manners went far deeper than the surface and were based on the complete understanding of and sympathy with human beings of every class in life, from the highest to the lowest. One day, when he was very small, he asked why the sweep never came to tea. “You are always having people to tea, but you never have the sweep.”

Not wishing to disturb his sense of “equality and fraternity,” we said he might not care to come. But the boy replied that if he did not like it, he needn't come again.

“Well,” we continued, “you see, he might not be interested in what we were talking about.”

“But couldn't we talk about what he *is* interested in or anyway we could listen to him, and I know *he* is most interesting because he has told me things I didn't know *before*, and which I always want to know *now*, about how the wind gets into the chimney, and when it can't get out again it's a prisoner between the sky at the top and the fire burning at the bottom, so it moans and cries because it doesn't know how to get free. And I told him one thing *he* didn't know, and that was about the storks sitting up on the edge of chimneys to see what's happening in the rest of the world.

Quite in desperation as to an excuse proving valid for not asking the sweep to tea, we mentioned that he might prefer to drink out of his saucer if the tea were too hot.

OH, WELL,” SAID THE BOY, “COULDN'T WE ALL drink out of our saucers—at least my mug hasn't got a saucer, but I could sort of pretend it had.”—Contributed by HELEN A. BOWEN, Saratoga Springs, New York, from *The First Whispers From the Wind in the Willows* by Elspeth Grahame.

Aspirations After Learning

What goals do children set for themselves? What do success and failure, reward and punishment have to do with the goals they set and their performance in attaining them? Should any child ever experience failure? How may success be related to the goals which the individual sets for himself? Mr. Hilgard, executive head of the department of psychology, Stanford University, gives some answers to these questions by citing the findings of research and interpreting their significance.

THE MOST SATISFACTORY LEARNING situation is that in which the child successfully accomplishes what he or she is trying to do. This is so obvious that its more subtle implications are sometimes overlooked. How do we know what success means to the child? Is what the child tries to do always what we think he is trying to do?

One tendency has been to define success according to an arrangement of the learning situation by the teacher, so that reaching some end point results in reward. The objection to rewards is not that they are always bad but that they may divert the learner (and the teacher) from the psychological realities of the learning situation. The reward is bad if it is interpreted as a bribe to force something inherently distasteful to get done for the sake of something else. It is bad also if it is defined competitively so that it is available to but a limited number of the learners, hence forcing all the rest to experience a relative failure.

In the comparison between reward and punishment, reward is to be preferred. But this comparison is not enough. Success and failure for which reward and punishment are administered must be considered from the learner's point of view rather than from the end results obtained. Success

and failure are psychological consequences broader than reward and punishment.

To call attention to success and failure as experienced by the learner, Kurt Lewin and his students have introduced the concept of level of aspiration.¹ The level of aspiration refers to the momentary goals of the learner, hence to what the learner is trying to do. Success and failure are relative to such goals.

Very often teachers and parents expect to judge the performance of young children by adult standards, failing to understand that "good enough" to the child may differ considerably from "good enough" as viewed by adult standards. A "good enough" performance may be a success experience to the child, even though the adult views it as failure. The difference is in the level of aspiration of child and adult. The concern of the teacher and the parent must therefore be just as much with the child's goals (either accepting the child's goals or attempting to modify them) as with the skills, knowledges and attitudes which are related to these goals.

¹ "Level of Aspiration." By Kurt Lewin; Tamara Dembo, Leon Festinger, and Pauline Snedden Sears. In *Personality and the Behavior Disorders*. A handbook based on experimental and clinical research. Edited by J. McV. Hunt. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1944. Pp. 333-378.

What One Study Revealed

To show the relation between level of aspiration and the teacher's task, one of the experiments with children learning school materials may be cited.² Three groups of children were selected from the fourth, fifth and sixth grades of the public schools of New Haven. The groups had had varying success in their school subjects, especially in arithmetic and reading, although they were matched in socio-economic status, age and intelligence. The first group—the "success" group—had a history of satisfactory work in both arithmetic and reading. The second group—the "failure" group—had a history of unsuccessful work both in arithmetic and reading. The third group—the "differential" group—had a history of success in one of the subjects and of failure in the other. To determine what effect these past experiences had had on the goal-setting behavior of these children certain characteristics of their levels of aspiration were studied individually as they were given arithmetic and reading tasks.

Children with a past history of success in arithmetic or reading tended to set their goals realistically when tested in arithmetic or reading. They completed a short test and were told what they had done with it and were asked what they would "try for" on the next test. They usually announced slight improvement as their goal. The "successful children" behaved very much alike.

This predictability of behavior following success is very important for the teacher. It seems that if tasks are kept at a level at which the pupil can succeed, the learning situation is kept under control. From a mental hygiene

point of view, it is highly desirable to have the learner expect improvement of himself, but an improvement which is realistic and likely to be attained. Pupils with a background of success behaved consistently in this wholesome way.

By contrast, the goal-setting behavior of those children with a history of failure not only differs from those with a background of success, but the difference is not predictable. Only a small minority set goals realistically like those of the success group. Most children in this group tended instead to deviate in one or the other direction. Some, as a consequence of experienced failure, set their goals below present achievement. They appeared to be so afraid of adding more failures to their record that they dared not expect improvement. "I'm no good in arithmetic. If it took me only thirty seconds this time, I was just lucky. Next time it will probably take me thirty-five seconds to complete something similar." By setting the goal well within reach, the child protects himself from the chagrin of further experienced failure. The child so beaten down by failure that he expects little of himself is surely not in a favorable attitude for learning.

Others in the "failure" group (and these were somewhat more common) set very high aspiration levels, expecting to improve over present attainment far more than would be predicted on a realistic basis. Their thinking was somewhat as follows: "I always have bad luck in reading but I'm as good as the next fellow. Just because a couple

² "Levels of Aspiration in Academically Successful and Unsuccessful Children." By Pauline Snedden Sears. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 1940, 35: 498-536. "Level of Aspiration in Relation to Some Variables of Personality; Clinical Studies." By Pauline Snedden Sears. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 1941, 14: 311-336.

of words I didn't know slowed me up to fifty seconds doesn't mean I can't read in thirty seconds if anybody does." Or the attitude is: "I want to do well in reading. I'll try very hard and see if I can't do *much* better."

One can recognize the social approval which would go to this child in many schools in which evaluation is based in part upon effort. We like the child who tries. Actually, however, unrealistic trying of this sort is bad from a mental hygiene viewpoint because it is a trying which is uncorrected by the realities of the situation. It is an unfortunate state of affairs when a child becomes so inured to failure that what he expects of himself no longer corresponds to reality.

These results are convincing and they correspond to the experience of understanding teachers. The conventional system of rewards and punishment makes many children learn less well than they might if material were related to their abilities so that their goals continued to be set realistically. Success experiences support level of aspiration just as aspiration level determines success.

Is Life Like That?

While most teachers accept the importance of success experiences they often raise the objection that the outside world is not so kind. Children must be taught to experience failure, they believe. There are several answers to this argument. For one thing, the outside world is often kinder than the school. If a man proves incompetent on a job and is fired, he must accept that failure, but nobody insists that he go back on the job and try again in order to be fired next year. In school, if a child fails a subject, he is often

forced to repeat that subject and, not infrequently, to fail again. The outside world does not insist that a man attempt that which is beyond his abilities. He can have a satisfying livelihood in work suited to the level of his competencies. Let us not be too quick to justify school practices on the grounds that we must prepare pupils for the cruel, cold world.

The second thing is that guaranteeing success experiences is one of the best ways to prepare for failure. There will be failures, even when goals are set realistically, because the psychology of success is that there must be some possibility of failure if the success is to mean anything. The resentment of tasks which are too easy ("baby stuff") is as great as for tasks too hard. By having sufficient successes, failures can be taken in stride.

There is the residual task of teaching appropriate reactions to failures. Keister³ has shown that young children can be taught to stay at tasks without giving up, to reduce their emotional reactions (e.g., crying) and to appeal less for adult help. It may be noted, however, that her methods depend for their usefulness on the ultimate success of the child in reaching the goal being sought.

Success and the Goals of the Individual

The definition of success from the point of view of the learner provides some interesting problems, because success and failure often do not have sharp boundaries between them. I have pointed out elsewhere that there are at least four ways in which success may

³ "The Behavior of Young Children in Failure: An Experimental Attempt to Discover and Modify Undesirable Responses of Preschool Children to Failure." By Mary Elizabeth Keister. *University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare*, 1938, 14:27-82.

be related to the goals which the individual sets himself.⁴

The most obvious basis for success is to attain the goal set. If there is proper "ego involvement," so that reaching the goal has psychological meaning, then there is real elation which comes with the expression: "I made it!"

To miss the goal is not to fail completely, for to get within the psychological region of the goal is also satisfying. Some goals have more precise boundaries than others and, if we are to foster success experiences, it is well that goals be set as regions rather than as specific attainments. That is, there should not be a choice between complete success and abject failure. Many situations allow partial success, e.g., the pupil may not get the lead in the play but may still have a part in it. To be nominated for an office is a mark of prestige, even if the other candidate wins.⁵

A third source of success is the satisfaction which comes with improvement, even though the goal is far from attained. Change in a desirable direction may be encouraged as a source of personal satisfaction, somewhat independent of the actual performance level which is reached.

Finally, there is a satisfaction which comes from the setting of desirable goals. It does something for a person's self-esteem to think of himself as the kind of person who is trying

to do the right thing. He may belong to organizations whose meetings he never attends, or buy books which he fails to read, but he is still the right kind of person.

These considerations suggest responsibilities for the teacher who is concerned with the goal setting and goal reaching of young children. The chief suggestion is that the child be given enough success experiences that his goals are kept realistic and attainable. The second suggestion is that social pressure toward the setting of unattainable goals must be reduced so that praise does not come from having the heart in the right place even though it means that success must remain in the world of phantasy.

⁴ "Success in Relation to Level of Aspiration." By Ernest R. Hilgard. *School and Society*, 1942, 55:423-428.

⁵ The most striking illustration of the goal region is a practice rather widespread in India. In line with the custom of signing college degrees after one's name, many write "B.A., failed." One case at least has been brought to my attention of a practicing physician whose office sign carried his name followed by "M.D., failed." This means only that attending college is so rare that to have got so far as taking the examination for the degree is a success experience, even though the examination was not passed!

. . . Is This America?

MY KINDERGARTEN HAS AN AVERAGE ENROLLMENT OF ONE HUNDRED FORTY pupils. Divided, this places approximately seventy children in each of two sessions into a room built to accommodate about thirty-five children. There is no other room in the building that can be used for the kindergarten.

This situation became acute two years ago when the writer with the other kindergarten teacher and the principal devised a plan of a three-session kindergarten: 8:30 to 10:30; 10:45 to 12:45; and 1:00 to 3:00. This plan has been followed for two years and has made it possible to handle the large enrollment in the one room, but it presents other problems.

There is a need of a new school in this area to relieve the crowded conditions. A promise has been made of a prefabricated primary school but to date nothing has been done.—Reported by a patient kindergarten teacher.

GOADS or GOALS ?

By the devices we use to motivate children's learning at school are we guilty of perpetuating the "gimme," "beatchu," "so-what" attitudes so inimical to the cooperative society we are trying to build today? Miss Cunningham, assistant professor, Teachers College, Columbia University, believes that we are. She discusses some methods and devices commonly practiced and used and tells why they defeat two fundamental purposes of education—the motivation of learning and the development of cooperative attitudes.

MAYBE TEACHERS WORK TOO HARD. *Maybe, she says. Maybe! How does she think I got this furrowed brow, these gray hairs? Does she think it's playing tiddlywinks that makes me feel like a limp dishcloth at the end of a long day? And how about . . .*

Hold on a minute, Miss Teacher. How about letting me finish my sentence? As I was saying, maybe teachers work too hard *on the wrong things*. Teaching always has been hard work, and always will be, I guess. A teacher has just so much energy to see her through, so it's pretty important that she use it well, isn't it? And youngsters have just so much time in which to grow up, so we have to be sure we use that time wisely, don't we?

M-m-m. If you put it that way it begins to make sense. All teachers have learned tricks for getting things done with the least amount of time and energy. For example, we can have contests and give prizes, list names on the honor roll and all that sort of thing. That's always an easy way to get youngsters to work hard and . . .

Hold on, again. Are you sure that's the easy way? Did it ever occur to you

that that may be the *hard* way to get youngsters to work? Have you ever noticed how such things snowball? Once youngsters have caught on that the reason for working is for the prize, the more contests and prizes the teacher must provide. It isn't long before she's in a whirl of contests and more contests, prizes and more prizes—all harder and harder work for the teacher.

Most teachers soon tire of trying to keep up with the whirl, and they shift from the obvious sorts of contests and prizes to more subtle types. Good grades on a report card become prizes. Marks become less important as symbols of evaluation and more important as psychological lollipops, or switches. Working to get one's name on the honor roll becomes a kind of contest. Allowing Billy to work in the art center if he can complete his arithmetic early; selecting Jim as a team captain because he has the best spelling paper; telling Marjorie she is a good girl because she



Maybe, she says!

remembered to dot her i's the way the teacher said they should be dotted—these practices and many, many more become the daily prizes a teacher doles out from her bag of tricks. And she must work hard to keep the bag replenished.



Team captain

But good teachers aren't afraid of hard work. We've found that these methods work, so why not use them?

You're dead right when you say that good teachers aren't afraid of hard work. But that's all the more reason their work should be in the right direction, isn't it?

Let's look at what we mean when we say these methods "work." Contests and prizes *do* work if all we want is to get youngsters to go through the motions. The real question is, "Are they the best ways to help youngsters learn what is most important for them to learn?"

Just what are we teaching when we use contests and prizes? Reading, arithmetic and spelling? Maybe, but perhaps there are better ways to teach these skills. In addition, we're teaching some other things. Three lessons are clear.

Lesson 1. "No Prize, No Work."

Eight-year-old Tom was transferring from one school to another. In the school he was entering the principal was trying to determine with which group he would be best adjusted. She had learned a good deal about his experiences and interests and finally decided to make a hasty check of his skills. She found some easy reading material and asked him to read for her.

"Sure," said Tom. "I'll read for you if you'll give me a dime." This, by the way, is a true story.

Not many youngsters are so articulate and specific as Tom, but how many are saying to themselves, "Sure, I'll do my arithmetic or spelling or whatever if she'll give me an A or put my name on the honor roll or tell the other kids I won the contest or let me be captain of the kickball team."

And how many teachers say to themselves day after day, "What can I do next to keep them at work?"

"Don't work unless there's something in it for you, unless somebody gives you something in payment." This was Tom's philosophy, the lesson well learned.

Is this the lesson we want to teach our children—that all behavior must have its personal reward? Then where are our ideas of doing that which brings deep personal satisfaction, the satisfaction in the doing; that which is of service to others, with joy in the service; that which is a duty, and accepted as a personal responsibility?

Lesson 2. "Me First."

A contest implies that some are winners and others losers. The whole idea is to get ahead of the other fellow.

Jim was not a very good student but he was impressed with the importance of getting a good grade and ultimately the reward of being "passed," the final prize in the contest called promotion.



Good girl



Tom

One day Jim found the arithmetic assignment too much for him. He tried but he couldn't do what was expected. He took Sally's paper when she wasn't looking, erased her name and substituted his. His reasoning was clear. The most important thing was to win the reward of a good paper. Sally's troubles were secondary. Cheating was necessary to win the contest for the coveted prize. Is it possible that we may teach children to cheat?

"Out of my way! I've got to win." Is this the lesson we want to teach our children? Or would we rather teach methods of working together, of making contributions to the common good, of helping the other fellow when he needs it, of being a good citizen of a group?

Lesson 3. "Why Bother? I Can't Win."

For some youngsters a contest means another defeat even before the contest starts. Long experience has taught them that they're not the ones to win.

Ten-year-old Mary has been working hard for four years to get good grades, but with no success. The highest grade the teacher will give her is a C. "Why bother any more?" asks Mary. "Evidently you can't beat this game unless you hold some special cards." Mary has quit trying.

Mary's teacher says, "I just can't understand that child. She won't respond."

And no wonder! For many youngsters, high marks on report cards, names on honor rolls, and winners of contests are, by apposition, poignant symbols of their own repeated failures, of their continuing frustrations, of their increasing feelings of inferiority. The slowest learner learns after a while that it is useless to keep on trying.



Report card day

Psychologists tell us that every child needs a balance of success and failure, a balance of things one can do and of things yet to be mastered. Yet in many schools where we use rewards as goads, success comes to those who find it easy to succeed, and failure to those who find it difficult to meet certain standards. It would seem that we are doing things backward, wouldn't it? Maybe we're being unjust to both groups—the "failers" and the "succeeders." Perhaps we should see to it that those who have a difficult time have some chances to succeed and, just as important, maybe we should see that those to whom the usual types of success come easily have some chance to fail, to meet situations worthy of their effort, to need to stretch themselves in their full capacity, to learn that there is always more beyond reach.

At this point, there is always someone who says, "But this is a competitive world. A kid must learn to take it."

Yes, there is much in this world, even today while we talk of world cooperation, which is based on competition. There is so much that maybe we don't need to teach the techniques of competition in school. But this is also a co-operative world—at least we hope it may be—and the techniques of working together are not so easily learned. Doesn't this mean, then, that much of our energy should go into teaching children to cooperate?

This all sounds well enough in theory, but if we take away competition, what are we to use to get youngsters to work?

Purposes—individual purposes and group purposes—which imply planning, of course, both individual and group. When youngsters select problems for attack then plan ways to find answers and solve problems, there is *purpose* in work. Real evaluation takes the place of marks, with the youngsters having a part in measuring *their* progress toward *their* goals. Promotions are but an unimportant notch in time, while continuously improved group living is the goal. To “please the teacher” is less important than to achieve an individual or a group purpose. Special privileges are not doled out by the teacher but become special responsibilities delegated by the group. And *it works*. This can be said with confidence. It is no longer in the realm of beautiful theory but is a cold, hard fact as measured by any means available. Not only is it a way to teach “subject matter” but a way to teach good group living as well.

But let's remember this, for it is important: setting goals, defining purposes, making and carrying out plans are skills to be *learned*. They don't happen automatically any more than do other skills. They need to be practiced, first in simple situations and then gradually in more complex.

Does everything we do have to come from the purposes of children?

Not always, perhaps, although youngsters can often amaze us with the maturity of their thinking if we give them a chance to say what they

think. But there may be a place for bringing to children problems which they did not initiate and proposing purposes and goals for their consideration. The need to collect scrap paper during the war may be an example. Let's see how the paper collection was handled in two schools.

In Longfellow School competition was considered the best way to get things done. When the faculty was convinced that the youngsters should help collect scrap paper, it went to work with a will and set up elaborate contest plans. There were room prizes and individual prizes. In the hall was a big scoreboard showing the number of pounds of paper collected per room and listing the names of individuals with high scores. The paper poured in. It looked as though the competition was a big success.

But some things other than paper collecting began to happen. Some fourth grade boys began to hold up the first and second graders on the way to school and take their papers so that the fourth grade room score would look well on the board. (Lesson 1. “Me first.”)

The smaller youngsters soon found it didn't pay to try to have a good collection record and quit bringing papers. (Lesson 3. “Why bother? I can't win.”)

It was reported to the principal that some boys were stealing papers from the newsstands in order to increase their stack and raise their individual scores. When, in the name of school spirit, some youngsters got into fights with boys from other schools over rights to certain sources of scrap paper, the faculty decided things had gone too far. It announced that there would be no more contest, no more prizes.

Paper would be weighed in as usual, but with no fanfare. Paper collections decreased to a dribble. (Lesson 1. "No prize, no work.")

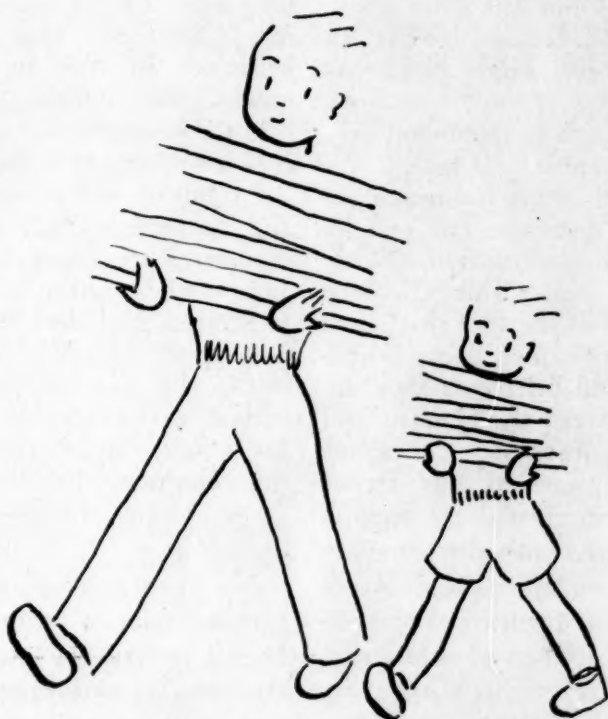
In Emerson School, the faculty feels that work must have a purpose, that the one who works must have that purpose. When members of the staff were convinced that there was a need for youngsters to help in collecting paper, they went to their classroom groups and explained the situation.

The boys and girls made studies of the uses of paper and the part it played in materials of war. They shared their findings with other classroom groups. They learned the great need for paper and the contribution they could make to their country if they'd pitch in and help. The youngsters themselves agreed

that they wanted a part in such a program. They made plans for the collecting, sorting, storing and weighing. Everyone contributed ideas as to where scrap paper could be found and how it could be brought to school. Older children volunteered to help younger ones who knew of supplies of scrap too heavy for them to carry. The paper began to pour in.

But that was not all that happened. Youngsters learned about paper, about the war, about how to plan and work together. They felt a real satisfaction in doing an important job and in doing it well. And the paper continued to be collected.

Which is your method—meaningless maneuvers or real learning, prods or purposes, goads or goals?



Everybody contributed, and the big ones helped the little ones.

How Do the Children Feel About It?

What children feel and how they feel are important things for parents and teachers to know if they would guide them well and assure their best development. Mrs. Fuller, assistant professor and principal of the nursery school and kindergarten, Institute of Child Welfare, University of Minnesota, reports her findings in a study of children's feelings and points out their significance to teachers and parents.

IT TOOK SOMETHING AS DEVASTATING to all humanity as the atomic bomb to bring home the lesson that any endeavor—scientific, political, educational, economic or military—which fails to consider the human being and his personal feelings may become a monster to destroy us all. What people think and feel matters—not just what a few people think and feel but what all people think and feel. Might and numbers are no longer synonymous since an atomic bomb can be made and carried by a few to annihilate many.

The world still places too much responsibility for decisions and policies affecting people in the hands of specialists who know only "things," with little recognition of the fact that there are scientific laws which cause people to think, feel, and behave as they do. Recent reports from the Dachau and Nuernberg trials leave little doubt but that the perpetrators of our recent holocaust were motivated by feelings which modern educators discuss every time they get together—discontentment, frustration, resentment, regression, aggression, feelings of inferiority, feelings which stress rights without responsibility, feelings about discrimination against race or creed.

It is interesting to watch any group of small children—even nursery school age children—as they play together. The same feelings which motivate adults are beginning to motivate their social relationships. Three-year-old Jimmy feels frustrated. He regresses to a lower level of behavior and wets his pants. Or, he aggresses and strikes out at someone. Four-year-old Elizabeth sees an attractive doll. She is quick to demand her right to play with it but if it gets broken her first impulse is to disclaim any responsibility for it.

As Jimmy and Elizabeth grow older and enter the primary grades their feelings originate from different sources. Jimmy finds reading difficult, becomes frustrated, and decides he hates reading. Elizabeth wants to sit in a certain seat in the classroom and isn't too disturbed by the fact that Ellen had asked for it first. But if that seat turns out to be one where its sitter gets last turns at everything, Elizabeth will quickly disown it.

No great concern need be felt for such behavior in Jimmy and Elizabeth. It is a normal part of the social and emotional growth process. Understanding and wise guidance can go a long way toward helping them to substitute

more desirable behavior as they mature; they probably cannot (and perhaps should not) completely alter the feelings which motivate their behavior. The normal adult, however, should long since have made desirable substitutions in behavior for these urges which are based upon the supreme egotism of the infant and small child. If he has not, he does as Jimmy did and strikes out, this time with an atomic bomb. Or he does as Elizabeth did—asks for higher wages while at the same time he complains about the higher rent.

It is sometimes difficult to see the continuous nature of personality and to relate what adults do to what they did as children. Recently, a man who is unaccustomed to being with small children visited a nursery school (to fix the plumbing not to observe children). He became interested in the children's play and made these remarks:

"Look at him now—he's the La Guardia type. Can't you just see him mayor of Minneapolis in thirty years, with a big black cigar in his mouth?"

"Oh boy, she won't have any trouble. She won't have to be smart but just roll those eyes. Watch her get her way with those kids, and make them love it!"

"Look at sissy, there. Can't even pump in a swing, and he's bigger than any of those others. Watch him! He just tries once and then bawls. He'll sure have a tough time in this world."

Now this plumber (and amateur psychologist) was discovering that the personality types that we see in adult life already exist in a group of two- or three-year-olds. Unfortunately, the task of finding out "what causes what?" or "what goes with what?" usually comes after children are much older—sometimes even adults. Then it is not so easy to reverse the process and

delve into the past to find out if possible what made them like they are. This process in reverse comprises about half of the work of the juvenile court, of the psychiatrist, and certainly of the teacher. Even when they are successful in discovering the early facts they frequently miss the "color" which accompanying feelings gave this early history.

What One Study Revealed

The psychologist and educator might well take their cues from this observant plumber and be a little more curious about personality development, particularly as it is related to the feelings which motivate children to behave as they do. The writer had occasion to explore children's feelings in a study¹ which was made as a part of the University of Michigan growth studies, several of which have already been reported in recent issues of *CHILDHOOD EDUCATION*.² The sixty-five children who took part ranged in chronological age from seven years and four months to twelve years and five months, and in mental age from seven years and six months to seventeen years and six months. They were all regularly enrolled pupils in the second, third, fourth, fifth, and sixth grades of the University of Michigan elementary school.

In this study, attention was directed toward the child's feeling state, happiness, or general *affectivity* rather than

¹ "The Relationship of Affectivity to Various Measures of Growth in Children, 1941." By Mary Elizabeth Mechem. Microfilm copies of the complete study are on file in the University of Michigan Library and are obtainable through University Microfilm, 313 North First Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

² "Concepts of Growth—Their Significance to Teachers." By Willard C. Olson and Byron O. Hughes. *Childhood Education*, October 1944, 21:53-63. "The Improvement of Human Relations in the Classroom." By Willard C. Olson. *Childhood Education*, March 1946, 22:317-325.

toward specific feelings which are attached to some object or idea. The definition of affectivity or state of happiness which best illustrates the area being investigated is that of MacCurdy³: "Affect includes experience which, when examined introspectively, is considered to belong to the subject's individual organism. It may be felt to be stimulated by sense perception, by a thought, or be causeless. But in no case is it thought to be a quality of the stimulus except in relation to the subject."

The general feeling states (affectivity) were investigated by means of individual personal interviews with the children. Questions asked in the interviews were selected by surveying the literature on personality measurement to obtain items consistently used to measure feeling states. Two interviews were scheduled with each child to take place about a year apart. The same questions were asked during each interview. In order to establish what was a "preferred response" to the interview questions, collective judgments of one hundred fifty adults trained in child development were used, "preferred" meaning a response which would seem to indicate a positive state of affectivity, happiness or contentment. Each "preferred response" made by a child was allotted one point, so that a high score on the interview suggested a high level of affectivity and a low score a low level of affectivity.

A few of the questions and answers are shown with small figures at the left to indicate whether the reply earned a favorable point toward the total score:

TEN-YEAR-OLD BOY

- Do you cry very often?
0 Yes.
What makes you cry?

- 0 When mad or my feelings are hurt.
Do you like to go to parties?
0 Yes, but I'm never invited, except once in a long time.

SEVEN-YEAR-OLD GIRL

- Are you lucky?
1 I'll say—always!
Do you like to have new children in your room or would you rather the same ones stayed year after year?
1 New ones, because I like to make new friends. It's easy for me.

NINE-YEAR-OLD BOY

- Is your school work easy for you?
1 Yes.
Does it bother you much if you cannot do something that you are trying to do?
1 No, I just try again, or postpone it until I can do it better.
Do your parents treat you as well as they do your brother or sister?
1 No. She's got eczema and is sick so they have to treat her better. They treat me nice, though. I betcha' I got the best parents anybody could have.

NINE-YEAR-OLD BOY

- Do you dream at night?
0 Yes, when I don't say my prayers. Suddenly I think somebody is going to kill me, then I wake and remember to say them and go back to sleep and have good dreams.
Do you ever feel that you almost hate yourself?
0 Yes, when I send a friend home who's nice and for no reason. Then I say, "Bobby, you're a big dumb sap," and wish someone would kick me in the pants.
Do you have a hard time making up your mind about things?
0 Yes, I never know what's right. I just say, "Eeny meeny miney mo" and hop to it.

TWELVE-YEAR-OLD BOY

- Are your teachers usually nice to you?
0 Well, the best one was Wilson. Worst one I've had yet is Lippincott. She's *never* nice. I can't even study when she's around. I *can't* like her, she's so strict. You can't do *anything* at all in there!
Do you think it's fun to pretend?
0 Yes, that I'm a hero, like an aviator. That's what I want to be. I invented a bullet- and bomb-proof plane and was in the air

³ *A Student's Dictionary of Psychological Terms*. By H. B. English. Yellow Springs, Ohio: The Antioch Press, 1928.

force bombing German air bases and they couldn't hurt me. I had a new kind of gas—one drop would go fifty or sixty miles. (This boy had the reputation of being the class "sissy.")

Obviously, some revelation of childhood feelings and attitudes emerges from the study of such data. Almost every interview revealed something which might aid parent or teacher toward a better understanding of the child. Statistical analysis in some ways defeats the aim of presenting these side-lights on personality to get teachers to recognize the importance of children's feelings. However, a few of the statistical results lend emphasis to the children's own reports:

Happy children were more apt to be judged relatively free of behavior problems⁴ than unhappy children. Figure 1 reveals the negative relationship between affectivity scores and problem tendency scores for the sixty-five children. This trend suggests the complicated nature of behavior problems and emphasizes the fact that if a child is given the chance to tell *his side* of the story, there is much in the problem situation which is not to *his* liking either.

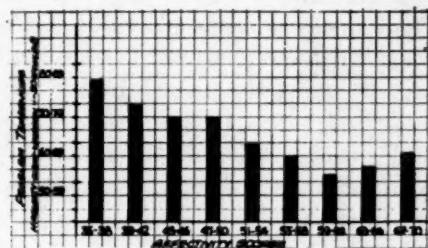


Fig. 1. Affectivity scores and problem tendencies

One wonders how different the approaches to behavior or learning problems would be if children were given a voice in solving them. However, it would be fallacious to assume that the

child's happiness and his tendency to be a problem relate only to each other. On the contrary, the study of children's feelings stresses the "one-ness" of the child's responses. That is, behavior and feeling bear demonstrated relationships to each other, but these relationships are *associational* rather than *correlational* in that many other factors seem to limit or qualify each separate measure of relationship. That is, Nancy's happiness is related to her intelligence *and* her school achievement *and* her health *and* her interest level, *and* other factors, all fused into a whole which obscures the independent or isolated effect of any single factor. We must therefore attempt to understand the child as a whole in all aspects of living to be able to describe any one aspect thoroughly

It is difficult (if not actually impossible) to describe what a child's affectivity level will be at a given time by simply examining his status in other measured factors. Among the elementary school children studied, many of the happy children were slow growers, and many of the unhappy children were fast growers. What seemed to matter to their happiness, more than growth rate alone, was how they stood in general growth status within their own school grades. For example, Floyd doesn't seem to mind the fact that he is growing rather slowly as compared to the norm for *all* boys of his age, if he lives in a school grade where there are a *few* others just like him. However, he reacts unhappily if he is grouped in a schoolroom with children who are all superior to him in one or many ways. He senses his status *within the small group where he lives*,

⁴ Haggerty-Olson Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules. New York: World Book Company, 1930.

not in the world at large. Happiness thus becomes relative to grouping and classification methods as well as to growth patterns.

In studying the children's responses it became clear that no safe prediction as to happiness level could be made from examination of measurement data. Rather, the same sort of difference exists between happiness and individual measures of growth as exists between the separate ingredients for a cake, as compared to the cake itself. There are many ways to put ingredients together so that the resultant cakes differ widely. Also, it is difficult to judge what causes the varying results from one cake to the next with seemingly identical ingredients and baking methods. Also, if one ingredient must be left out, certain ones are better to omit than certain others, as the ingredients are not equally important to the cake.

Likewise, affectivity states do not reflect a whole which is the mere sum of its parts; at least not the sum of the parts which were isolated for consideration in this study. Happiness seems rather to evolve from many factors such as health, academic achievement, interest level, physical size, and intelligence, but the factors seem to affect children differently. For example, Amanda at ten years of age was achieving very rapidly in school, was very intelligent, healthy, had an excellent home background and had almost everything one might consider as essential to happiness. Yet, Amanda seemed dissatisfied and at times even sullen. In both of her interviews, Amanda's affectivity scores were relatively lower than those of other children in her group. The first clue came in response to the interview question, "Do you ever feel that you almost hate yourself?"

Amanda: "Yes, you're darned right I do. But I hate something else worse. I hate something else more than anything in the world."

Interviewer: "Do you mind telling me what that is? I'd like to know. Perhaps I could help."

Amanda: "Well, it's salesladies!"

Interviewer: "That is interesting. Why?"

Amanda: "Oh, every time I go with mother to buy me a dress, they say something like, 'My, isn't she a chunk?' Then they find some old sack for me that makes me look worse. I *know* I'm fat but I'm not going to *starve* to death."

With this lead, Amanda's interview blank was re-examined and she was observed in her classroom. It was easy to see what was happening; she pushed her favorite dessert away sulkily at lunch; she avoided the rhythms group; she refused to play hopscotch; she recited sitting down; she sat at her desk and drew fashions for sylphlike ladies; she liked Tommy but hesitated to choose him in games; she chose library instead of gym at "free" time.

There were two other little fat girls in Amanda's room who were not achieving as well as Amanda, but who were bubbling and gay with their plumpness. They both earned higher scores on the interviews than Amanda. Thus, the unevenness with which separate factors operate confuses the statistical problem. Amanda's case illustrates the fact that a seemingly trivial portion of one's description may become exaggerated to the extent that it obscures or distorts other factors. It presents quite a challenge to the teacher who must understand what general factors operate in aiding or hindering personal adjustment and, in addition, must be able to identify an individual factor when it distorts a child's adjustment as physical size distorted Amanda's adjustment.

The Children Are Interviewed Again

Another interesting suggestion resulted from repeating the affectivity interview series with the same children the following school year. Whereas a child's affectivity level could not be predicted accurately from other measures, (such as growth rate, intelligence, introversion-extroversion, and academic achievement) once one affectivity score was obtained it was possible to predict what *direction* this affectivity was taking by examining these same other measures. That is, estimates of the initial level of happiness were poor—some children who from the adult

viewpoint had everything to make them happy were relatively unhappy; others who lived under tremendous handicaps in other measured aspects of growth were relatively happy. However, once it was determined what the happiness level was at one time, this happiness seemed thereafter to fluctuate with perturbations of the growth pattern itself.

Figure 2 describes Eugene's growth before and during the time the affectivity study was in progress. His height age, weight age, dental age, and reading age all exceed his actual age; his grip age and educational age approach aver-

age growth; his mental age and carpal age fall below average during most of the span presented; his developmental age⁵ is appreciably below average; his problem tendency score lies close to the norm for boys of his age. Eugene, then, is a large boy whose achievement is below his physical age but equal to or above average and well above his mental age.

On the basis of earlier unsuccessful attempts to relate happiness levels to other individual factors such as growth rate, intelligence and educational achievement, it is impossible to guess what Eugene's state of affectivity will be at the time of his first interview

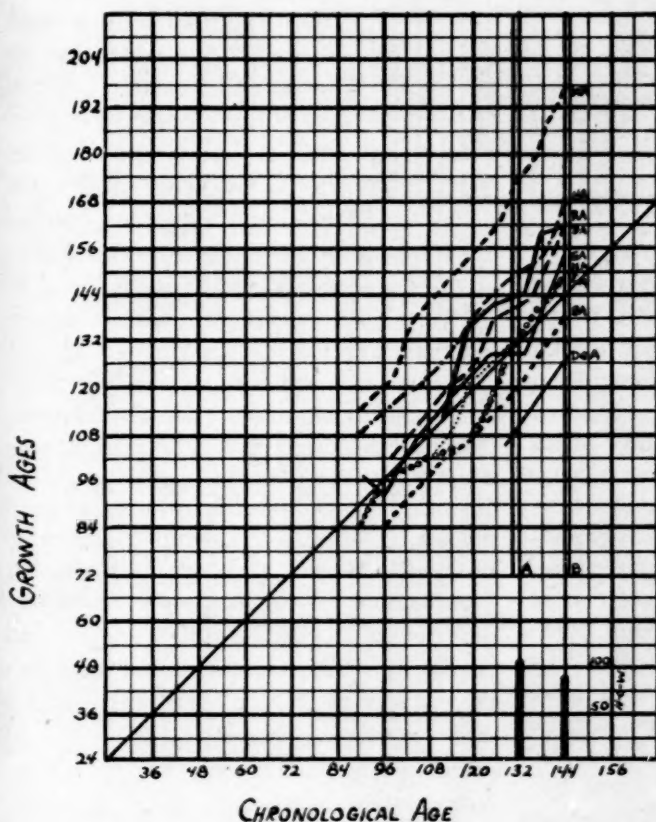


Fig. 2. Growth record for boy (B2) whose affectivity score increased in the interval between interviews

⁵ "A Revised Scale for Measuring Development Age in Boys." By Paul H. Furfey. *Child Development*, June 1931, 2:102-114.

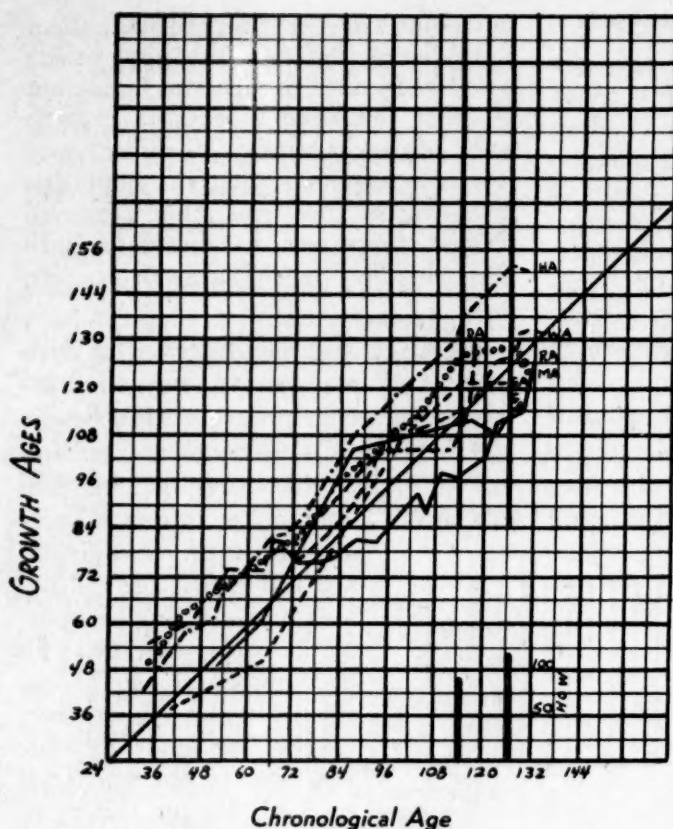


Fig. 3. Growth record for girl (G31) whose affectivity score decreased in the interval between interviews

(Figure 2, designated by perpendicular line A). However, once the first interview provided an affectivity score of 41 (-1.76 sigma), careful study of his growth pattern during the next year definitely suggests that his second interview (Figure 2, designated by perpendicular line B) will reveal a higher level of affectivity. It can be seen that Eugene's growth rate has speeded up in the interval between A and B. His second score was 53 ($+2.23$ sigma) which represented the largest increase in happiness scores evidenced by any child in the study. Thus, Eugene became happier in the interval during which he was growing faster than was typical for him. He reflects in happi-

ness, then, the relative growth rate of his own "whole" organism, and once we know what one happiness score is we can use it for a better estimate of his later scores by examining the direction which his general growth is taking.

Figure 3⁶ shows the growth pattern for Bernice, the child whose affectivity scores decreased more in the interval between interviews than those of any other child. She represents the opposite trend from that illustrated by Eugene. Inspection of Bernice's growth curves between perpendicular lines A and B reveals that she is suffering a general slowing down and confusion during the experimental interval as compared to the rate of growth which

has been typical for her previously.

Cases such as Eugene and Bernice further suggest the advisability of considering the child as a whole in studying any aspect of development, and of considering the child over as long a period of time as possible to increase understanding of this development.

All phases of the study of the happiness levels of the children responded better to relating the difference between scores on the first and second interviews to other measures than to relating single scores on one interview to the same measures. That is, when

⁶ Figures 2 and 3 reprinted from "Affectivity and Growth in Children." By Elizabeth Mechem. *Child Development*, 1943, 14:91-115.

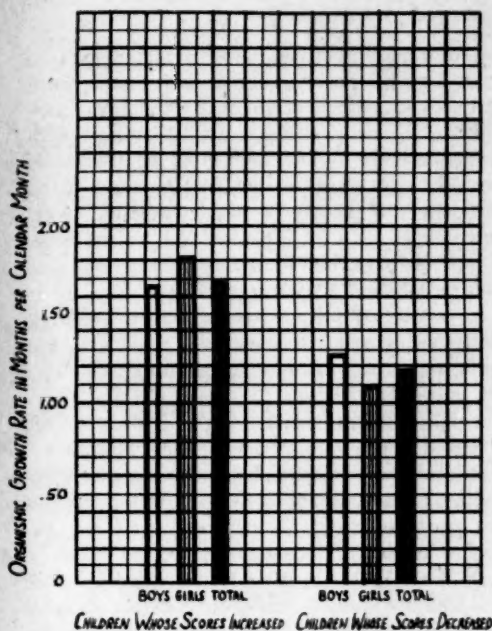


Fig. 4. Rate of organismic growth for children whose affectivity scores increased and those whose affectivity scores decreased in the interval between interviews

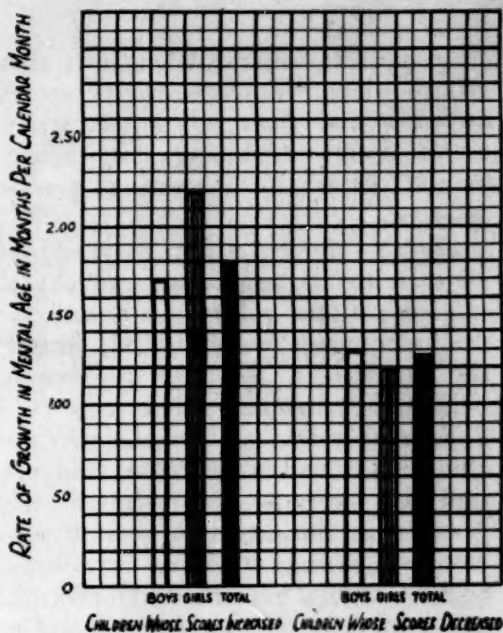


Fig. 5. Rate of growth in mental age for children whose affectivity scores increased and those whose affectivity scores decreased in the interval between interviews

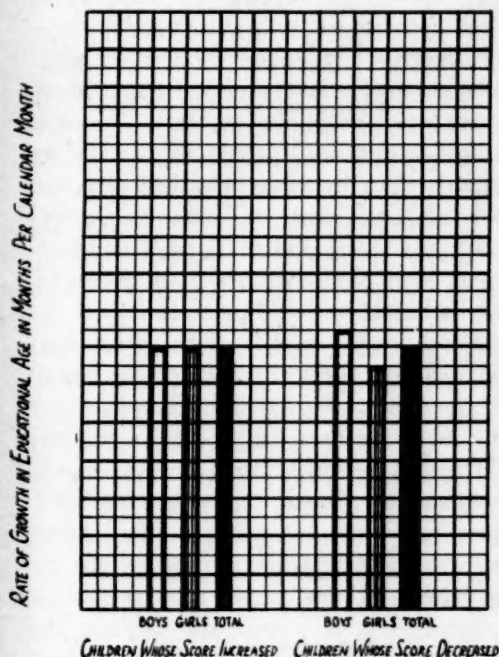


Fig. 6. Rate of growth in education age for children whose affectivity scores increased and those whose affectivity scores decreased in the interval between interviews

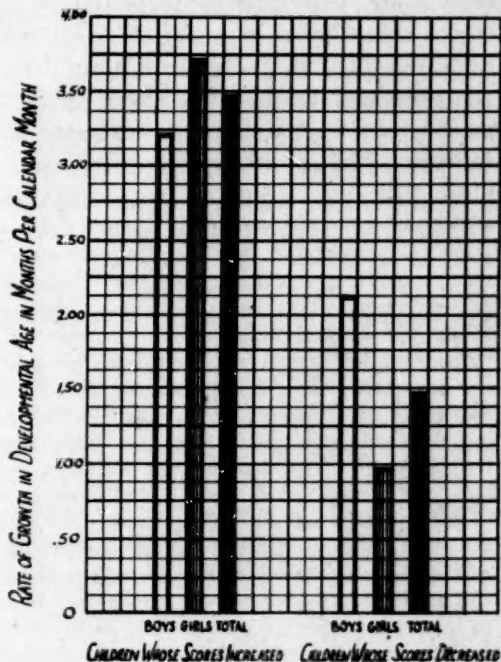


Fig. 7. Rate of growth in developmental age for children whose affectivity scores increased and those whose affectivity scores decreased in the interval between interviews

the children were divided into two groups, those whose affectivity scores *increased* and those whose affectivity scores *decreased* during the experimental interval, interesting trends emerged.

Figure 4 illustrates how the children were faring in organismic age, mental age, educational achievement, and developmental age (interest level) during the interval in which they became either happier or unhappier.

Teachers might well wonder why the children's school achievement (education age) bears no demonstrated relationship to the direction their happiness is taking, whereas organismic growth, mental age and developmental age (interest level) seem to respond in accord with the happiness scores.

Qualitative interpretation of the data, quite apart from the statistical treatment, provided some evidence as to the significance of children's feelings in other phases of school or home life. Three anecdotes are presented briefly to emphasize again the importance of sampling the child's viewpoint:

Mrs. Anderson implied she was about to withdraw Amy because of the child's unhappiness in her grade. After consulting her interview material it was discovered Amy made repeated references to her older sister's teasing about her reading ability. Amy's sister attended another school and chided her by telling her that if she did not come to her school she would never learn to read well. Her reading was well beyond standards for her grade, but her teacher reported that she was devoting free play period, work period, and even part of her lunch period to reading alone. She was therefore isolating herself from her companions and increasing tensions in every direction. With this added information, it was a simpler matter to solve the problem for both child and parent.

Malcolm, age eight, had given his teacher concern over his fatigue and nervousness. During his interview he told about his frequent attendance at late-hour movies, and his addic-

tion to radio mysteries. He reported that he listened to his radio secretly in his room until after eleven o'clock at night. Obviously, such confidential information must be treated with respect and, if used at all, must be used very carefully. A child would be alienated if his confidences were to be used "against" him. However, if such information adds to the home or school personnel's understanding of such cases, a solution is nearer.

A survey of all answers given to a single question directed attention to a situation relatively significant in educating young children. For example, question 25 asks, "Do you think that policemen are usually fair?" What seemed an unduly large number of the children responded "No." Examination of extra or elaborating remarks made by the children revealed that most of their reasons for distrust or animosity toward policemen related to contacts with them in connection with traffic offenses. Children commonly offered such explanations as Teddy's, "No! They arrested my Dad for speeding outside of city limits and he wasn't going too fast. It wasn't fair there or at Detroit either. You can't see the signs."

If, then, we see that children form their general attitudes toward policemen from what would seem to an adult to be relatively trivial specific incidents, important leads as to how families should meet such situations may be gained from hearing how the children feel about them. Thus, subjective analysis of the material in the interviews complements in a meaningful way what is said statistically.

Much more work needs to be done to find out how children feel about things, and what are the implications of these feelings in their living and learning. Whether we admit it or not, whether we like it or not, what children feel—how they feel—is important. Their feelings permeate the atmosphere of the home and the classroom and it is up to the parent and teacher to sense these feelings and, if possible, enlist them as deputies in all teaching and learning activities.

Put Promotion in Its Place

Miss Oaks, teacher of first grade in the York, Pennsylvania, public schools, says that there are two fallacies in present promotion practices, tells what the first and second grade teacher can do to eliminate them, and gives her opinion of what may be expected to happen to children as a result.

SINCE THE DAYS WHEN HORACE MANN advocated organization by grades for the schools of America, tremendous changes have taken place—some of them good, too many of them bad. Teaching methods have swung slowly but surely from instruction of the individual to the situation where, in many schools, every child assigned to a certain classroom is given the same textbooks and expected to achieve the same amount of learning each year. Promotion and its disproportionate place in present day education is an outgrowth of these changes.

This is how it works. At the end of the year, if the child is in the upper forty per cent of his class, in the group which usually reaches the arbitrarily set goal, he is promoted. If he is in the lower twenty per cent he is not promoted, for this group has *not* reached the goal. This leaves forty per cent unaccounted for. This group likewise has not reached the goal, but since holding back sixty per cent of the class would create a situation which would overtax the capacity of a classroom (and lay open to suspicion the teacher's ability to teach) these children are also promoted.

If the pupils in the lower twenty per cent group are immature physically, socially or mentally, they probably don't suffer too much from this non-promotion. But if they are overgrown both socially and bodily, they suffer

untold agonies from being kept back with "the babies."

In my opinion, however, the most cruel and inexcusable treatment of all is administered to that middle forty per cent which is sent on because there is no room to house them. A contractor doesn't build one story of a building, blithely ignore the building of the second, and then go on to putting up the third. Yet that is exactly what these boys and girls are expected to do. Perhaps they have the ability to read only the first reader, but because they are assigned to a third grade class, they are expected to read a third reader. The teacher is a third grade teacher and she knows how to teach the third grade. Therefore, the pupils assigned to her are expected to assimilate her third grade lessons.

It very soon becomes obvious that some of them can't. After a few futile attempts to bring them into line, the teacher brands them as hopeless and lets them sit for the rest of the year.

We all know them as the trouble-makers—the discipline problems. For active boys and girls are bound to do something, and where constructive activities are not provided, something of a different nature will be found to take their place.

Perhaps the teacher is the stubborn type who won't believe that a child can't learn what she is teaching. She forces him to spend many weary hours

practicing error after error because he has neither the background nor the will-to-do to accomplish what she asks. Lower and lower drops his self-esteem while higher and higher mounts his hatred of school and everything connected with it.

Pitifully enough these are not isolated cases; they happen all too frequently in many of today's schools.

The First Grade Teacher's Job

Apparently there are two fallacies which loom large in the foregoing promotion picture. Could we but eliminate them, much of our problem would be solved. One is the notion held by many first grade teachers that they must have every child who enters the first grade in September ready to read second grade material by the *next* September. The other is the idea held by many teachers of grades above the first that all the children who come to them at the beginning of the year *should* be ready to read the material in the readers for those grades.

To return to the first statement, the first grade teacher would be nothing short of a miracle worker if she were to accomplish this, and to that distinction I think none of us lay claim. For many children, the handicaps of physical, social, and emotional immaturity, together with irregular attendance, crowded classrooms, and similar circumstances make such achievement utterly impossible. There are always some, too, who lack the mental capacity to attain this goal.

The first grade teacher must accept these facts and plan accordingly. She must recognize the wide range of abilities within her class, and group and instruct with these in mind. Research has shown that most children do not

profit from formal instruction in reading until they have attained a mental level of six and one-half years. Many first graders do not begin to approach that level, and it is necessary to hold off this instruction until they do. That means that many of the children will come to the middle of June *without* having read the last page of the first reader. Now, what to do about it?

In my opinion, this: Children are more nearly alike in physical and social development than in mental development and it is on the former bases that they should be assigned to second grade.

Those who have reached physical maturity commensurate with their chronological ages, by which I mean that they are approximately the same size as the others in their age group and have the same physical skills, should not be put with children less well-developed. Likewise a child who can work with a group and can consciously put the desires and needs of a group above those of his own should not have again the frustration of working with a group of individualists who think only of themselves. It is because these two factors are more likely to develop spontaneously that children are frequently farther ahead in them than in mental development.

Well-adjusted personality is our true goal in education. If a child is already well toward that goal through normal physical and social development, is it right to undermine what has already been built by using mental development as our only yardstick for promotion? Can we justify the loss of confidence in himself which this will produce and the consequent loss of stabilization of personality? Would it not be better to retain what we have and build from there?

A child assigned on the basis of social and physical development will not suffer the humiliation of being put with children smaller than himself. Instead, he will be happy with children on the same maturity level as he, and will bring right attitudes to his work.

The children who can not meet the above criteria for physical and social development will feel more at home with younger children. They should not be required to start all over again with the beginners, even though they are assigned to the same classroom, but should be allowed to take up where they left off at the close of school.

The teacher has an exceedingly delicate task here in helping the parents observe the right attitude toward the child and his continuing in the same grade. The child must not feel that he has failed, for in truth he hasn't. He must be made to see that he simply needs more time to grow. In the main, the child will be far easier to convince and reconcile than the parents. But they must be won without fail so that the child's personality will suffer no harm. So much for the first grade teacher's job.

The Second Grade Teacher's Job

The second grade teacher who follows along with this idea will have a greater variety of activities with which to cope, but she will be more than compensated through the interest shown by *every* pupil and by the sense of achievement both she and her pupils feel.

Formerly, the second grade teacher who thought all the children assigned to her should be ready to start out in the second reader placed this book in their hands on the first day of school. Then the trouble began! Aside from

the few who were ready for it and could read it with ease, there was little pleasure or profit in the lesson. The teacher said (to herself, of course) some not-very-nice things about the first grade teacher who had not done her work the year before, and grimly set her mouth for the rest of the year.

The present day teacher, however, should realize that some of the children assigned to her may not have had *any* formal instruction in reading. If they are now ready for it, she must begin that instruction. Those children who are in pre-primers should be permitted to continue on that level, as should the pupils on the more advanced levels.

At the end of second grade the same policy could be carried out—assignment to the next grade on the basis of social and physical maturity. The third grade teacher would help each child to take up where he left off in the spring and to continue at his own rate. Likewise each teacher after that would take each child where he was and help him go on from there.

Some children do not seem to profit by instruction in the regular classroom, even though their individual achievement has been considered. These children should be tested early and, if circumstances warrant, placed in a special class where instruction can be even more closely adjusted to their needs. If the trouble is physical, it should be corrected as quickly as possible.

Some Worth-while Results

And how are children helped by a situation like this? What effect does such a program of promotion have on their learning and behavior?

To begin with, it sets the stage for development of adequate personality in that it provides for success rather than

frustration. Learning will follow success as surely as does the sun the rain, for success provides both a foundation on which to build and the motive power for building.

As to behavior—here's the way to say "good-by" to sullenness, inattentiveness, and pupil frustrations which often result in downright refusals to try. It's the way to say "hello" to happiness for every child in the class, for every child will be working with a purpose with materials he knows he can handle.

In conclusion, then, it is my belief that most of our promotion troubles in the past have been due to the fact that teachers have not been willing to take a child where he was and help him go on from there. Either he approximated what most of the others

in the class were doing or he was allowed to sit, which is more merciful than forcing him to attempt work at which he could not hope to succeed. But, year after year, when he could have and should have been learning something, he did not because he wasn't able to move along with the rest of the class. No consideration was given him or others in the same straits.

If, therefore, a child is allowed to mature sufficiently before instruction in any subject is begun, if he is assigned to the next grade on the basis of physical and social maturity, if his next teacher is made aware of just how much he has achieved, and if she helps him to carry along from there, promotion will be a motivating factor in his learning and not the deterrent that it so often has been in the past.



*Enough,
If something
From our hands
Have power
To live,
And act,
And serve
The future hour.*

—WORDSWORTH

The Robin Hood of Low Seven

She might have reported Tony to the police, or have called him a thief and a liar. But she didn't because she knew that Tony "could be reached and taught to grow up in a way quite fitting and proper for a boy." What she knew about Tony justified her faith in him. Miss Wiesemann is a student at North Texas State College in Denton, Texas.

I RECOGNIZED THE TALL MAN IMMEDIATELY as he climbed out of the shiny automobile and started across the playground. He was leading by the hand a chubby little boy.

"How are you, Miss Mitchel?" he inquired, and a smile lit up his clean-cut features.

"Just fine, Tony, and how are you?" I answered, giving him my hand.

"I'm fine, too," he replied glancing toward the little boy. "Sammy, this is my old playground teacher, Miss Mitchel. I went to school to her and next year she'll be your teacher, too."

"Hello there, Sammy." I responded, reaching for the little fellow's hand and noting his trim suit and new shoes.

"Miss Mitchel, he's my oldest, and I believe a south paw for first base."

Little Sammy looked up at me and grinned shyly. "Well," I said, grinning back at the child, "I remember at least one time when your daddy pitched a wonderful game. After it was all over, the score was only two to one."

"I'm working for United Mills," Tony said, glowing with pride and brushing a bit of lint from his neat tan suit.

"Is that right? And do you like it?"

"Yes, ma'm. I've been with them four years."

We chatted together about his wife, the second child at home, and about the small white cottage which Tony was

paying for on the installment plan; then he turned to the child and said, "Tell Miss Mitchel good-bye, Sammy."

"Good-bye," piped the little boy, grinning again.

With that they both left and as I watched them drive away my thoughts turned inward to behold a different Tony of perhaps twelve or thirteen years—big Tony as he was when first I knew him. He brought me a soccer ball one morning because mine had been stolen. "See that there, Miss Mitchel?" he inquired, pointing to a piece of tire patching on the ball. "That's a hole I plugged."

I didn't say anything, surrounded as we were by all of low seven, although I knew that the soccer ball was mine and not Tony's. So when he came to claim it after school, I said to him, "Tony, where did you get this ball?"

Tony's bright grey eyes stared straight into mine. "I bought it!" he replied boldly.

"Tony," I said, smiling, "this is my ball."

"Aw, Miss Mitchel, your ball didn't have no hole in it!" objected the boy.

"Tony," I began in a firm but kindly voice, "I don't believe there's a hole in this ball and I'm going to prove it to you." I tore off the patch, revealing underneath only smooth unbroken leather and, still smiling, explained to him that I had recognized the ball by

its many sections and that no boy could afford to own a ball as expensive as that one. He stared at me curiously as though he was not exactly sure of my next move.

"You don't have to steal anything from me," I continued. "I'll lend any of you anything you want at any time." I held the soccer ball toward him saying, "Would you like to take it home?"

He nodded, too surprised for speech as I placed it in his hands and said, "All I ask in return is that you bring it back in the morning."

Tony Develops a "Business"

One day the following week I made it my business to happen by a corner of the playground where a small group of boys were talking quietly instead of playing. "What's the matter, boys?" I remarked casually. "Don't want to play today?"

A freckled-faced chap in ragged overalls said, "We don't feel like it."

"We'd rather talk," added another.

"Oh, well," I replied, "you can talk after school."

Straight toward us from across the playground walked Tony with one thumb hooked in a back overall pocket. "What's the matter, Miss Mitchel?" he inquired. "Are them boys givin' you any trouble?"

"No," I said, casually glancing from the boys to Tony. "They're just lazy and don't want to play."

Then Tony spoke authoritatively. "You boys do like Miss Mitchel says."

All five of them started immediately and cheerfully for the ball diamond. "Miss Mitchel," said Tony, "if you ever have any trouble with them boys, jest let me know about it."

After this incident I began to observe Tony more closely. The boys in his

gang invariably did whatever he suggested. If he said to a boy, "You'll pitch today," that was all there was to it. That boy was the pitcher. I inquired about him from other teachers.

"There are three children in Tony's family," volunteered Miss Taylor. "The oldest boy is in my room, and the youngest is a girl in Miss Lane's room."

"That's right," said Miss Cummings, "and I believe that the mother is a scrub woman at one of the hotels."

"After Mr. Thompson died," continued Miss Taylor, "she put these children in a home only a few miles out of the city, but Tony kept running away and coming back to see his mamma. Finally she brought him to school and said to us, 'I simply can't keep Tony in that home any longer. He just won't stay there.' He used to sell papers at first. Why, then he was only a real little tyke hardly more than seven years old. "And do you know," finished Miss Taylor, "he just wasn't satisfied until his mother got the other two children home too. I swear, I don't understand what they live on."

During the weeks which followed, Tony showered me with gifts of apples, oranges, and candy bars. Once he brought me a fancy brown and yellow knob for the shifting lever of my car. He hung around me on the playground a good deal, always eager to jump to my bidding, or just to talk to me.

Recognizing Tony as a leader, I encouraged these attentions. Then one day he said to me, "Miss Mitchel, your tires are in awful bad shape. Now I'll tell ya what I'll do. I'll sell ya a whole new set fer five bucks. They're bran' new. The wrappers ain't even off 'em."

"Well," I replied, "that's certainly cheap enough, but I know you didn't get those tires fair and square."

"No," he admitted.

"Now," I continued, "my curiosity's got the best of me. I don't understand how you could get away with a whole set of tires. I can understand how you could take little stuff—but a whole set of tires?"

"Heck, that's easy," he said. "A bunch of us go to a fillin' station an' start a big row out in front. Then while everybody's watchin' the fight, a couple of us jest roll one of 'em away. Course one tire at a time's about all we can get away with."

"Aren't you afraid of the law?" I asked.

"Naw!" he replied shrugging his shoulders as though he considered that possibility entirely trifling.

"Well, Tony," I said, "I don't make too much money myself and there are lots of things I'd like to have, but I don't go out and just help myself. I go without."

"How much do ya make?"

"I make a hundred thirty dollars a month," I said, telling him the truth. Then he wanted to know what I did with my money and again I answered him truthfully, telling exactly how much rent I paid and how much my food and clothing cost.

"Now, Tony," I began when his curiosity concerning my finances had been satisfied, "you're a smart boy and very likeable. Why don't you sell newspapers and magazines? I'll help you get started by getting some of the teachers to buy from you."

"I tried that once but I couldn't earn enough to help Mom and all of us."

"Well, how about being a messenger boy?" I suggested.

He considered that for a moment. "I don't have a bicycle," he said.

"Get a job that doesn't require a bicycle. A grocery boy doesn't need a bicycle."

He shook his head. "I gotta have more money than that."

Just then the bell rang and Tony followed the rest of his class into the schoolhouse. This by no means ended the discussion. Gradually he started telling me how often they made raids, who sold the loot, and how much money he received. "Miss Mitchel, I can't earn that much money workin'," he would insist. That the stolen goods were sold at very low prices, I knew for a fact. For example, one afternoon small Alice showed me a pair of new roller skates and exclaimed gleefully that she had bought them from Tony Thompson for fifteen cents.

Getting picked up for robbery was a common occurrence among children of the district and I was familiar with the court record of every child on my playground. Often I was called late at night by some distracted mother who would weep into the telephone, "John-n-n-y, the cops got 'im. Miss Mitchel, pleas-s-e—he wants ta see ya. Will ya go see him?"

Sometimes I complied and sometimes I did not. It depended upon my own personal influence over the child in question as well as his response to that type of punishment. But Tony and his gang had no such records.

Lawfully it was my duty as a citizen and as a teacher to report my findings to the police, but the boy was made of good stuff and a court sentence was not what he needed. My influence over him was growing and I knew only too well what would happen to that influence if I were to play the part of Judas. He was not a hardened criminal. I knew that he could be reached and

taught to grow up in a way quite fitting and proper for a boy.

I "Join" the Gang

I turned away from my cabinet one evening after putting away equipment to see Tony standing in the doorway. "Miss Mitchell," he said, "we'd like ta have ya join our gang."

"What makes you think I'm eligible?" I asked.

"All the fellas like ya. Course kids that join hafta fight me, but we'll skip that part."

"Thank you, Tony. It is very generous of you to offer to take me into your gang and I consider it a great compliment, but I couldn't belong even if I wanted to."

"Why not?"

"Because of the way you get things that you want."

He hesitated for a moment and then said, "We're havin' a meetin' tonight. Why don't you come on over and see what's goin' on?"

"Thank you, Tony. I'll be glad to come," I replied.

The gang hide-out would have been hard to find had not small Barney been detailed to watch out for me. The two of us approached it from the street through a narrow alley. It was still light enough to see and by stepping carefully I managed to avoid the piles of empty tin cans and the two dead cats which littered the path. The hide-out was a shack, really, but was referred to in a politer way as Thompson's shed.

"Thompsons live thar," said cross-eyed Barney, tossing his tousled head in the general direction of a small unpainted frame house just beyond the shack. I made no comment. During the months since starting to teach in the neighborhood, I had grown some-

what used to the sagging porches, the rotting steps, the torn screens, and the broken window panes which characterized the district. The Thompson home was small and nondescript exactly like the rest.

A gunny sack which Barney pushed aside in entering covered the only opening to the shack. A lantern hanging from a nail in the wall shed a pale yellow light over the noisy group who crowded about me. Other furnishings consisted of innumerable packing boxes and an old piano crate. A more fastidious person might have shivered and thought of rats.

Promptly at eight o'clock Tony banged on the piano crate with his fist and all racket ceased. Reading from a small dog-eared note book, he began to take roll, checking off the names with a stub of a pencil as he went along.

"Hank Jackson?"

"Right here."

"Got your three cents?"

"Yep," replied Hank sauntering up to Tony. Out of a pocket in his faded trousers came a soiled and ragged handkerchief. He slowly opened a knot in one corner and planked three pennies on the old piano crate.

Tony pocketed the coins. "Costs money to miss meetin's. Don't it, Hank?"

"Yep," agreed Hank, grinning and scratching his matted head.

Roll call continued, but just as the business was about completed two absent members dashed in. Each fished a penny from his pocket and gave it to the leader. "This here gang sure is in the money when they can afford to miss meetin's and come in late," said Tony, pocketing the latest donations. He put the book and pencil into a hip pocket. "O.K. fellas, let's play Injun."

"All who want ta be on my side, come over here," yelled Barney.

While the raiding party scalped imaginary white men amidst yelps and war whoops, Tony and Hank carried in two cases of soft drinks, a dishpan full of sandwiches, and two large jars of dill pickles. The hungry little urchins fell to eating like a bunch of starved puppies. Somehow or other I didn't feel very hungry, although the food was both good and plentiful. After the last crumb had been devoured, Tony disappeared again. This time he returned with a huge cake topped with pink frosting. He was followed by a quiet little grey-haired woman wearing a light blue house dress. The woman was probably thirty-five years old but the careworn lines in her tired face made her look much older. She carried a pan of assorted dishes and spoons. Tony did the introducing.

"Miss Mitchell, this is my mom."

I grinned and offered my hand. "How do you do?" I asked. The hand she gave me in return was small, red, and rough. On the third finger of her other hand, still busy with the spoons, was a wide gold band. I wondered what kind of a fellow the man was who had put it there.

She smiled at me and shyly patted a wisp of hair into place. "I'm glad ya could come," she said. "Tony talks about ya lots." Meanwhile Tony had

made another trip to the house for the ice cream which Mrs. Thompson proceeded to dish out.

After everyone had received his share, she said to me, "It's nice fer the boys to have fun like this." I agreed with her. Then after smothering a yawn, she quietly excused herself.

The ice cream and cake disappeared as fast as the sandwiches had but a little of the hungry look which the boys perpetually wore began to desert them—at least temporarily. With their stomachs full they were ready for more games. Since it was nearly nine o'clock, I said good-bye to the boys and once more was escorted to the street.

The breakup of the gang came about more or less gradually as the boys began to grow out of the gang age. The final break came when the boys were all in low eight. The stimulus was a likeable girl named Jinny. Jinny was an outdoor type who played better ball than dolls. The boys liked Jinny and decided to take her into the gang.

Tony came to me soon afterwards saying, "Miss Mitchel, the gang's bustin' up. Now the guys wanta take in some more girls. Heck, they talk too much; so I guess I'll take that magazine job."

The battle was won and I knew it just as I know that today's visit is a dividend on my investment.

Phyllis

By MARTHA FUSSHIPPEL

When Phyllis laughs
Willie Lee stops poking Joe,
Annie holds her pencil still,
Nelson looks up from his book,
And teacher thinks,
"I should love my children much, much more!"
When Phyllis laughs.

Children's Stories Through Records

The American Library Association has undertaken a new activity of interest to librarians, children, teachers and parents. It is distributing five records of children's classic stories recorded by Mrs. Gudrun Thorne-Thomsen, a recognized writer and master storyteller. The stories now available are *Gudbrand-on-the-Hillside*, *Sleeping Beauty*, *Baldur*, and *Tales from the Volsunga Saga* (two records).

During the summer session at Ann Reno Institute, New York City, Grace Allen used these records with her students in children's literature. One of the students—Sister Ann—has written the following evaluation for CHILDHOOD EDUCATION readers:

"In attempting to evaluate the recordings of Norse myths and folktales done by Mrs. Thorne-Thomsen, it seems necessary to point out the difficulty of the work she has done. Through this medium it is impossible to create that atmosphere of sharing a story that is so important in storytelling. Much is left to the imagination of both the storyteller and the listener, especially when only one voice is used and there is no musical background.

"In Mrs. Thorne-Thomsen's recordings everything has been done to simplify, aid and stimulate the imagination. The stories have a clear-cut plot centered on a few main characters; they have some emotional content, some humor, and the language is colorful in preserving the real flavor of the folktale and myth. However, since language assumes greater importance in this medium, I might say that the record *Sleeping Beauty* does not seem clear because there are too many pronounced sounds of "s." Parts of the other records are indistinct also, due possibly to peculiarities of speech that would only add to the charm of the story if the storyteller were actually present. *Gudbrand-on-the-Hillside*, however, is most enjoyable.

"These records, I feel, will bring pleasure to children familiar with the stories and fond of reading but will fail to hold the attention of other boys and girls because of the difficulties mentioned above."

Another person who evaluated the records did not notice any technical difficulties or at least did not find them annoying. The important thing, she felt, was that we do have a recording of Mrs. Thorne-Thomsen's voice—heritage for all who love stories and story-telling.

Across the

Three Films of Interest

Teacher Observations of School Children is a 35-mm. sound film strip in color prepared

by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company for the purpose of helping teachers gain a better understanding of the health needs of their children and of the importance of recognizing and reporting noticeable deviations from good health. The film depicts healthy children as well as children with early signs of illness such as upper respiratory conditions, early measles, malnutrition, impetigo, fatigue and ringworm.

The running time of the film is eighteen minutes. The accompanying script may be obtained in either typed or record form. For further information write the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1 Madison Avenue, New York 10, N. Y.

Extended School Services is a 16-mm. motion picture film in black and white and color prepared by the U. S. Office of Education. The film records a typical day in the school-age centers of Greensboro, North Carolina, and shows a wide variety of activities through which children's needs are met. The children play games, carry on a workshop, take a trip to the woods to get plants for a terrarium, go on a picnic, market at the neighborhood grocery, and plan and prepare a meal at which their parents are guests.

The film helps to interpret a school-community service which provides wholesome activities for children in their leisure time; it shows the kinds of programs attractive to children, how school facilities are adapted to carry them on, and what such programs mean to children. It suggests how other communities might develop similar programs. The film may be obtained free of charge from Extended School Services, Elementary Division, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.

Play Is Our Business, a twenty-minute sound film, presents children in a play world but one not removed from reality. Their play is as real to them as any job is to an adult. In the film you see children from the ages of five through twelve absorbed in some of the things they will be doing tomorrow as workers, artists, engineers, designers, musicians, carpenters, and

Editor's Desk

as parents, citizens and leaders. They are learning life through play in play schools, after school during winter and all day in summer.

The program of the play school can be adapted for children living in other environments than that of a metropolitan area, which makes the film a good one to show in any community seeking answers to many of the complex problems children face today. This film may be ordered from your local film library or from Sun Dial Films, Inc., 625 Madison Avenue, New York 22, N. Y.

Educational Press Workshop

Editors and assistant editors of fifty member publications of the Educational Press Association of America attended a workshop held at the University of Wisconsin, June 22-29.

They worked on problems common to all in the group—topography, readability, news reporting, printing, editorial policy and magazine content.

To the editor of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION the week was particularly helpful. Everyone was most generous in answering questions, in giving suggestions and in sharing ideas about the many puzzling problems editors have. In addition to staff members from the University of Wisconsin School of Journalism, several other consultants were in attendance. Small group discussions gave opportunities for editors, printers and artists to talk frankly and directly to each other with the publications as guinea pigs for professional analysis spread out before them.

The workshop group was comfortably housed in Chadbourne Hall and more than adequately fed by an excellent dietician and her staff of competent cooks. Good fellowship, informality and vigorous learning characterized the week, for one editor at least.

People On Our Side

One disadvantage in being a slow reader or slow in getting reading done is that by reading

at one sitting an accumulation of back numbers one's perspective may be thrown out of focus. Out of focus or not, it seems to this reader

that an unusual number of articles calling attention to problems and progress in education has appeared recently in news and general interest magazines. Three such articles seem worth mentioning.

Life, *Look* and *Coronet* in September and October issues take up the cause of better pay for teachers, the serious shortage of teachers, and the importance of the right kind of education today. Even the most hard-boiled taxpayer, particularly if he has children in school, would take a second look at "Stop Cheating Your Children" by Charles Harris in *Coronet* for October. Mr. Harris says that the parents of America are driving teachers from their profession and leaving the children and the future of the country to the whim of circumstances. He offers a three-point plan for American parents to follow to solve the teacher shortage, to save the school system from collapsing and to prevent sabotaging the children's future.

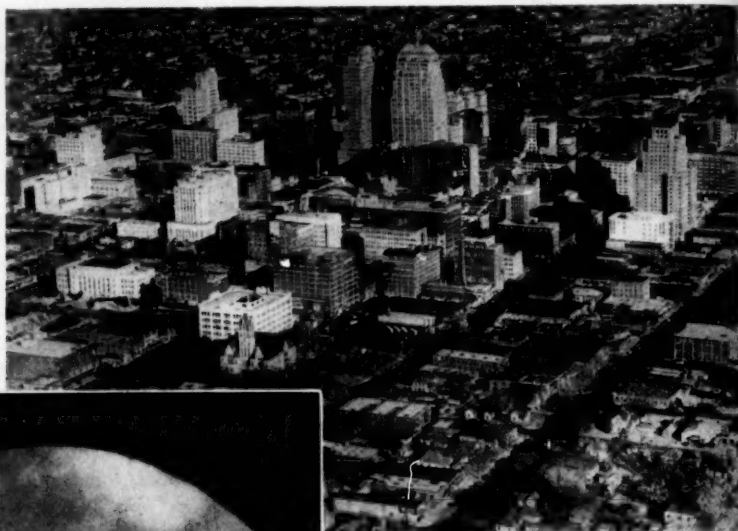
In an editorial "Teacher Troubles" *Life* says that our schools need better teachers and our teachers need much better pay. *Life* is dead right but unfortunately ends the editorial with a patronizing comment which might well have been omitted. "We have got to take the rubber bands off our wallets and do something handsome for our teachers." Not for the teachers, mister editor—the problem is much more complex than that—but for the preservation of the best this civilization has been able to provide for human beings everywhere. Let us have better teachers and better pay for teachers because we believe in something which can only be developed through the quality of the education we give America's children. We agree that the most important element in that quality is the teacher.

Look devoted seven pages to an article "The Hope of American Education." It is well done and the pictures are excellent. We question the advisability of listing the best schools in the country because "best" is such a relative matter. "Best" for what and for whom, we ask. The "best" cannot be determined in terms of buildings, programs and equipment but only in terms of what happens to the people who live in that school environment. *Look* has given emphasis to the people and to what and how they do, for which we commend it. But let education be improved through cooperation toward the good rather than through competition for the best.

OKLAHOMA CITY, OKLAHOMA

Hostess to the A.C.E. STUDY CONFERENCE

April 7-11
1947



This view of downtown Oklahoma City illustrates the slogan, "From teepees to towers in fifty years."



The central section of the city from under the Post Office archway.

The Municipal Auditorium where A.C.E. conference sessions will be held.



Books FOR TEACHERS . . .

LEARN AND LIVE. By Clara M. Olson and Norman D. Fletcher. New York: Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, Inc., 1946. Pp. 101. \$1.50.

"What would happen if the schools serving low-income groups where unrealized opportunities exist built the major part of their programs around the three economic necessities of food, housing and clothing? What would be the result if somehow the old-time subjects were geared to present realities, if community needs were pointed out, latent possibilities demonstrated, and every glimmer of effort to translate learning into practice tactfully encouraged?"

An answer to these questions is suggested by the results of an experimental program described in the book *Learn and Live*. Although the story is based upon factual reports and statistical records, the events are related with vividness and vitality. After a brief foreword which explains how this far-reaching experiment was initiated and carried forward, the story is outlined in a sixteen-page condensed section of charts, pictures and concise verbal explanations. In this condensed section he who runs and reads may learn graphically something about the poor diet, poor housing, and limited clothing expenditures found in many communities of the United States, and how through certain experimental schools where significant class and individual activities have been undertaken an interest in community improvement has been fostered.

In six interesting chapters the authors describe the Sloan Experiment in Applied Economics, which has been carried on under the advice of Harold Clark of Columbia University with the active cooperation of the University of Kentucky, the University of Florida, and the University of Vermont. In Kentucky an attempt was made to improve dietary practices in selected communities through the education of children and to measure the extent of any improvement attained. In Florida the project was concerned with improvement in the houses in which the children live. In the Vermont experiment, the problem was to find out, if

possible, whether a school can improve the general clothing condition of a community.

Since many signs indicate that the experiments have been successful in improving actual patterns of living in these communities, the program has been widened in these states to include a number of "three-way schools" which will use the materials on food, clothing and shelter developed in the three sections of the experiment. The program outlined for the "three-way schools" contains valuable suggestions for all schools, and especially for those that serve low-income groups.

A "Promising Sequel" to the experiment is described in the last chapter. The American Association of Teachers Colleges has begun an intensive study of ways of educating teachers to attack the life problems in a community. Curriculum studies under way in some selected teachers colleges are briefly described. Those who direct the experiment are convinced that "the teacher is the greatest single factor in the effect the school has upon the level of living in the community."—Clara Belle Baker

AN OVERVIEW OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION. By Bernice Baxter and Anne M. Bradley. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1945. Pp. 126. \$1.25.

An Overview of Elementary Education is a good refresher course for teachers who are in service as well as for those with educational background planning to return to the classroom after an absence of several years. The book will be found useful, too, by the supervisor of student teaching. It attacks the social, physical, emotional and academic problems of the modern school from a child development viewpoint, laying due emphasis upon the fact that learning can best take place when the whole child is considered.

After three introductory chapters in which the authors describe briefly elementary school children, the organization of the learning environment, and modern teaching principles and procedures, the various areas of the curriculum are surveyed in a specific manner and discussed from a child development aspect. At the same

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time the authors review good modern teaching techniques and stress the place of practice and testing plans in the mastery of skills after experimentation, manipulation, functionalization and experience has each played its part in either individual or group instruction.

Continually the "teacher's challenge to make the several types of classroom organization into a unified experience for the children" is emphasized. Recognition is given to the classroom atmosphere and the contribution it makes to the learning process.

The bibliography at the end of the book should interest those who wish to delve further in either the overview or special fields of teaching.—*Ruth Kearns, Winnetka Public Schools.*

DICTIONARY OF EDUCATION. Edited by Carter V. Good. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1945. Pp. 495. \$4.

It is to the credit of the *Dictionary of Education* that it has been to a large degree successful in solving the problem of defining evolving terms without falling into the danger of making arbitrary definitions which would not have common acceptance and which would not be realistically based upon common usage in educational circles.

It would be pleasant to be able to say that the dictionary has been wholly successful in this respect, but unfortunately an occasional arbitrary definition is found. Examples of both good and bad practices are found in the definition of the terms "program of studies," "curriculum," and "course of study." The definitions for "curriculum" and "program of study" both recognize that these terms are used in several senses. Three definitions are given for "curriculum," two for "program of studies."

On the other hand, an attempt is made to limit the term "course of study" to mean "an official guide prepared for use by administrators, supervisors, and teachers of a particular school or school system as an aid to teaching in a given subject or area of study for a given grade, combination of grades, or other designated class or instruction group." On the basis of common usage in the professional literature, there is absolutely no warrant for so restricting the definition of this term. It is used in other senses and is understood in those other senses. The definition itself acknowledges this by pointing out that the term is sometimes used as a synonym for "curriculum," but goes on to state

that it is "loosely and incorrectly used" in this sense. There is little justification, if any, for stating that this is incorrect usage, since standard dictionaries give definitions which would justify the use of the term to designate a series or succession of courses connectedly followed.

A second difficulty in preparing the *Dictionary of Education* was the procedure for defining terms. It was necessary to rely on voluntary and contributed assistance. After a master list of nineteen thousand terms had been compiled by the editor, more than one hundred specialists in the various areas of education were asked to serve as coordinators and to assume responsibility for selecting and defining terms in their respective areas. Most coordinators selected a number of associates to assist in the formulation of definitions. The definitions prepared by the coordinators and their assistants were edited by the central editorial staff and submitted to reviewing committees. Finally, the editorial staff collated all suggestions for changes in the definitions. The high quality of the dictionary represents a major achievement of the editor and his associates.

The final test of any dictionary is its usefulness. This reviewer originally had some doubts since those who would be most likely to use it would be fairly familiar with the educational literature and reasonably aware of the meaning of technical terms. He has been surprised to find that many people consult the copy in his office and that it is frequently referred to in professional discussions. It will certainly be of value to both undergraduate and graduate students in colleges of education and to teachers in service. The practice of indicating synonyms and the system of cross references help make it a handy aid for the person writing on educational topics.

The dictionary as a whole represents a major contribution. It constitutes one of the best refutations possible to those within and without the profession who say that educators deal largely in meaningless and unintelligible verbiage. It demonstrates conclusively that educational terminology does have meaning and significance. Education, like other fields, has developed an economical technical vocabulary, and it has as much right to its technical vocabulary as do other fields. The dictionary is a good indication that, technically speaking, the field of education has come of age.—*Archibald W. Anderson, assistant professor of education, University of Illinois.*

Books FOR CHILDREN . . .

THE WILY WOODCHUCKS. By Georgia Travers. Illustrated by Flavia Gág. New York: Coward-McCann. Unpaged. \$1.50.

That woodchucks are clever is clearly brought out in this humorous story that introduces the artistic, kindhearted Gág family in their New Jersey setting. Two little woodchucks, Pudgy and Charles, seemed determined to destroy the beauty of the Gág family's carefully planned garden. As the woodchucks grew fatter from foraging, the family became more perplexed and one after another each had a brilliant idea. But alas, the woodchucks were wily. Who wins the game will intrigue young readers and listeners.

Since this story was written Wanda Gág has passed away, but what a heritage she has left the children!

DADDIES—WHAT THEY DO ALL DAY.

By Helen Walker Puner. Illustrated by Roger Duvoisin. New York: Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Company. Unpaged. \$1.50.

In rhyme, work that daddies do romps through these pages, illustrated in four colors by Roger Duvoisin. Here we have daddies who are salesmen, doctors, musicians, postmen, policemen, flyers and a dozen other things. Consequently, almost every child will find his daddy's work pictured and rhymed to his great amusement and delight.

THE BRAVE BANTAM. By Louise Seaman.

Illustrated by Helen Sewell. New York: The Macmillan Company. Unpaged. \$1.

Helen Sewell's pen and ink sketches showing unusual expressions on the faces of the dog, the fox, the horse and the chicks add considerably to this story of a wonderful little brown hen. The brave little bantam was a real manager and leader. She had good sense; she was brave; she was busy. Young children will enjoy this story of a brave bantam who did her share in winning the war.

SCANDINAVIAN ROUNDABOUT. By

Agnes Rothery. Illustrated by George Gray. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company. Pp. 256. \$2.50.

It is a pleasure to have another volume in the Roundabout the World Books by Agnes Rothery. This time it is all about Norway and Sweden. As one travels through the fjords; fishes; goes to school; enjoys sports and holidays, kings and queens, stories and storytellers, one feels he has been in Scandinavia. The last two chapters "Inside a Swedish Home" and "Christmas in Sweden" make one long to be there this very year, for the gingerbread men, the sausages, the codfish, the dried peas, the flat pancakes, the huge doughnuts, and the smorgasbord make one's mouth water for these savory dishes. Then, too, one wistfully wishes to be Bride Lucia who ushers in the Christmas Season on the 13th of December. Any child or adult reading this book will catch the charm of these Scandinavian countries, the customs, the heroes, the people, and hope that someday, somehow, somehow, he will visit them.

WAKAIMA AND THE CLAY MAN. By E.

Balintuma Kalibala and Mary Gould Davis. Illustrated by Avery Johnson. New York: Longmans, Green and Company. Pp. 145. \$2.

These African stories are genuine Baganda folklore portraying the rabbit, the elephant, the lamb, the monkey and other loved animals. They are humorous and simple and will be easy to tell. The print is large and clear while the illustrations in black and white, though few in number, are clear cut and imaginative. These fascinating tales will lend themselves to informal dramatizations. They remind one of the Uncle Remus stories in their background but are less involved in plot.

THROUGH THE LOOKING GLASS. By

Lewis Carroll. Illustrated by John Tenniel. New York: Whittlesey House. Pp. 98. \$1.25.

This is an 8" x 10½" companion volume to *Alice in Wonderland* and, like it, is printed in large type. The original illustrations by John Tenniel, with yellow backgrounds, add much to the interest. Both books should be a part of every child's own library collection, for truly they have stood the test of time and are real classics. They are beautiful editions.

News HERE AND THERE . . .

Clara M. Wheeler

Clara M. Wheeler, a life member of the Association for Childhood Education, died June 28, in Grand Rapids, Michigan, at the age of eighty-five. A lifelong resident of Grand Rapids, Miss Wheeler took an active part in community and professional life. She was secretary and later principal of the Grand Rapids Kindergarten Training School for a long period, and for five years conducted a private kindergarten in her home. She held various offices in the Parent-Teacher Association in her state and for almost fifty years maintained a Sunday kindergarten at the First Methodist Church. Hers was truly a full and useful life.

Changes

Mildred Babcock, from the faculty of University of Tampa, Florida, to the faculty of University of Akron, Ohio.

Lorraine W. Benner, from the faculty of Wheelock College, Boston, to the Department of Education and Child Study, Smith College, Northampton, Massachusetts.

Margaret Hampel, from the faculty of State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, to the faculty of Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater, Oklahoma.

Martha Seeling, from Bemidji, Minnesota, to the faculty of Wheelock College, Boston, Massachusetts.

Mary Elizabeth Venable, from kindergarten teacher in the Atlanta, Georgia, public schools, to director of children's work for the Chicago Congregational Union, Chicago, Illinois.

Gift to the A.C.E.

In October, announcement was made of a gift to the Association for Childhood Education by Frances M. Berry and Isabel Lazarus, of a collection of historical toys. Now we are happy to announce the further gift by Miss Lazarus, life member of the Association and a resident of Baltimore, Maryland, of a \$5000 victory bond. In presenting the bond, Miss Lazarus expressed the hope that it might in some way help to provide a place for the Association's growing collection of historical materials.

A.C.E. Executive Board to Meet

Members of the Executive Board of the Association for Childhood Education will meet in Washington, D. C., Thanksgiving week end—

November 28 through December 1—to discuss the business affairs and policies of the Association and to plan for the 1947 Study Conference in Oklahoma City, April 7-11.

Over a period of time the Association has adopted resolutions in alternate years, and upon them has based a plan of action which remains in effect for two years. Branches and individual voting members will pass upon the resolutions and plan of action for 1947-49 at the Oklahoma City meeting. The voting membership has been asked by direct mail to send to headquarters suggestions of areas in which A.C.E. members should be working unitedly to meet the needs of children and teachers. These suggestions will be used as background materials for the new plan of action.

If contributing members and friends of the Association would like to send their suggestions for these areas, and also for the program of the 1947 Study Conference, the board will be glad to have them submitted before November 10 so that they can be discussed at the meeting in Washington.

Consultant in Children's Literature

Catherine Cate Coblenz, chairman of a committee on the appointment of a consultant on children's literature for the Library of Congress, made a recent report to committee members and interested groups. This committee has as members representatives of both the American Association of University Women and the Association for Childhood Education. Mrs. Coblenz said, in part:

A year ago this committee sent to a list of educational and library groups throughout the country its proposal for the appointment of a consultant on children's literature in the Library of Congress. We asked for reactions to this suggestion and, if the idea met with approval, for support.

The response received from both groups indicated that the need had long been sensed. The support of both groups for the appointment of an outstanding consultant and staff was unanimous. In addition we received the voluntary approbation and support of the Association of Children's Book Editors.

Luther Evans, Librarian of Congress, listened to our Committee sympathetically. He indicated that he was aware of the need in this field of the Library's service, as well as the possibilities, and would cooperate fully with us. The position of children's consultant was included in the budget presented to the Appropriations

Committee this spring. However, this and other proposals in line with improving the Library's facilities to meet the needs of the time and increasing its usefulness as a national library were eliminated by the Appropriations Committee in the House, and the small increase allowed by the Senate was halved by the conference committee of the two houses.

The letters from our supporters indicate that the library and educational groups in this country believe that the time has come when the possibilities of service of the Library of Congress, both to members of Congress and to the nation, should be recognized and utilized. This Committee is directly concerned with that recognition and utilization in the field of children's books. On that subject Martha M. Parks, president of the American Library Association's Division of Libraries for Children and Young People, says: "We have long been handicapped in opportunities to study children's books by the lack of a national reservoir of outstanding productions in this country and an adequate representative collection of children's books of other countries."

The past war is the prime object lesson in showing that a long-time educational program was the first step in all dictatorial planning. It is of utmost importance, therefore, that the Congress of the United States should from now on be constantly aware of what is being printed for children in this country and in various parts of the world. Such knowledge, it seems to Mrs. Malbone Graham, University of California, an authority on children's literature, is a matter of national preparedness and defense with which the Congress of the United States is charged.

But in the atomic age defense has ceased to be protection. Positive action is also needed. In this case such action consists of the spreading of democratic teachings. And here again, tomorrow will be fashioned largely through the reading material in the hands of children.

Frances Clarke Sayers of the New York Public Library sums up the national importance of our proposal and declares that she knows she is speaking for children's librarians all over the country when she says: "The plan is brilliant and is needed now in greatest measure. Such an appointment will conserve and make known our resources in this field, help maintain our already distinguished standards, and is needed at this time if we as a nation are to attain a culture and a standard of ideals commensurate with our stature in power and material."

This appointment would be of immense help to researchers in the fields of education, literature, social philosophy, anthropology and psychology. It would stimulate translation by making known the books in the Library now available for translation and would thereby aid in the development and understanding of peoples and cultures. The translation of American books would likewise be encouraged.

We believe that when Congressmen have a clear understanding of the purpose to be served by the appointment of a consultant on children's literature on the staff of the national library they will recognize the vital importance of such an appointment.

World Conference of Teachers

The executive committee of the National Education Association approved two years ago a recommendation calling for a world conference of the teaching profession to be held as

soon after the close of the war as transportation facilities were available. Such a conference was held August 17-30, 1946, at Endicott, New York.

At the meeting a World Organization of the Teaching Profession was set up, its purpose to secure world-wide cooperation within the profession for these ends:

To make the highest standards of full and free education available to all without discrimination.

To improve the professional status of the teachers of the world and to promote their intellectual, material, social and civic interests and rights.

To promote world-wide peace through the building of good will founded upon cooperation between nations in educational enterprises, based upon pertinent and accurate information.

To advise the appropriate organs of the United Nations and of other international bodies on educational and professional matters.

Transitional arrangements were approved whereby the World Organization of the Teaching Profession can function for one year. William G. Carr will serve as acting secretary-general to the Preparatory Commission during that time and headquarters for the Conference will be located in his office at the National Education Association Building, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. Office space and the time needed by Mr. Carr for this work will be furnished by the Association for one year, without cost to the Conference. Detailed information regarding program, membership and dues may be secured from Mr. Carr.

Children's Book Week

"Books Are Bridges" is the theme for the 1946 observance of Children's Book Week, November 10-16. Not only in this country, but in thirty-nine countries around the world, groups of people are paying tribute at the same time to the same thing.

The week is planned and materials for its observance are provided by the Children's Book Council, a non-profit-making organization sponsored and financed by the Association of Children's Book Editors. The materials include posters, maps, phonograph records, bookplates, newspaper mats, a book mark, and a handbook of successful book activities for schools, libraries and book stores. They may be ordered from the Council at 62 West 45th Street, New York 19, N. Y.

November Meetings

National Council for the Social Studies. November 28-30. Hotel Statler, Boston, Massachusetts.
National Council of Teachers of English. November 28-30. Atlantic City, New Jersey.

*"Backward, turn backward,
O Time in your flight,
Make me a child again
Just for tonight!"*



... the magic days of childhood are fondly remembered as a time when the mystery of the world was enchanting ... when life was a thousand little things to be discovered and explored ... when learning how to use a knife, how to get dressed, how to read was exciting.

The teacher of early grades sees this wonder every day. It is her privilege to keep the daily education of her pupils in tune with their delightful, private worlds, to help them hold their eagerness for knowledge through their vital, beginning years.

The **READING FOR INTEREST SERIES** makes this duty easy and effective with the primers and pre-primers listed below. These books, by distinguished authors and educators, form a balanced, basal program which makes reading an enjoyable experience.

Meet the newest addition to the Series
Ned and Nancy

A gay, instructive Pre-Primer about two resourceful children and their dog, Towser. Story and pictures are divided into short units, each based on familiar scenes and objects in the child's home.

PRE-PRIMERS

Ned and Nancy (Pre-Primer I)
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Little Lost Dog (Pre-Primer III)
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Dr. Paul Witty is Consultant for the Series

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